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JUNIOR

JUNIOR HIGH SCHOOL TRENDS

LEONARD V. KOOS



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JUNIOR HIGH SCHOOL TRENDS

LEONARD V. KOOS



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EDITOR'S INTRODUCTION

The appearance and growth of the junior high school in the United States of America reflects one of the most important and significant aspects of this country's attempt to provide the best possible educational program for its teen-agers. Not only has the junior high school proved of high value, *per se*, but its influence upon school systems in which the junior high school organization is not found has been wide and marked. For example, among communities in which the 8-4 plan of school organization prevails, many earmarks of the junior high school are commonly found.

Furthermore, there is no little evidence that the "spirit," "philosophy," and "goals" of the junior high school have had no small effect upon the educational programs offered in "senior" high schools.

Since the junior high school "idea" has existed in terms of actual practice in our schools for some fifty years, and since formally organized junior high schools have been operating for some forty years, it seems highly desirable to have conveniently at hand a close scrutiny of the junior high school in American education. To be of maximum value, such a scrutiny should come from a highly competent and experienced student of the junior high school.

This book fulfills in an extraordinary fashion this requirement. As is evidenced by continued study, research, and field activity, Leonard V. Koos is universally recognized as one of the eminent leaders in the junior high school movement. Not only has he been diligent as a professor of education, particularly at the University of Minnesota and the University of Chicago, but

he also has been a man of action in the field. Recognition of Dr. Koos as a leader in the arena of everyday achievement is symbolized by the fact that he served as president of the Minnesota Educational Association and has been called upon to serve in an advisory and consulting capacity with respect to junior high school programs in various sections of our nation. His capacity for meticulous search for the truth reported in his penetrating literary style have made all of his writing stimulating as well as illuminating.

The volume herewith presented should prove invaluable to all those interested in and concerned with the junior high school. Students in institutions of higher learning, boards of education, school administrators and supervisors all will find *Junior High School Trends* most helpful in the formulation and execution of local school policies.

JOHN GUY FOWLKES

P R E F A C E

As may be inferred from its title, this monograph reviews developments in the junior high school. The portrayal includes not only the separate junior units in school systems, but also the corresponding grades in other grade-groupings for reorganization. It is comprehensive in that it deals not merely with grade-grouping but also with the purposes of reorganization and all main internal features of organization, namely, curriculum organization, extra-class programs, and the programs for guidance and differentiation.

The treatment is intentionally brief. It would not have been difficult with the materials at hand to have expanded the writing into a large book, but this would have been done at the risk of obscuring outstanding trends. A brief treatment should serve the purposes of many persons who wish to know without voluminous reading how the junior high school has been taking form. Included in the monograph is an extensive selected and annotated bibliography for readers who wish to acquaint themselves in greater detail with some phase or all main phases of the junior high school problem. The bibliography will also serve the purposes of teachers in colleges and universities who plan to use the monograph as the core of a course on the junior high school or of a division on school organization in courses in secondary education or administration. Similarly, the bibliography should facilitate use of the monograph by faculty groups in junior high schools or other secondary schools.

The writer is under great obligation to the large number of junior high school heads and other administrators who supplied the materials on current practices and programs on which cer-

tain of the trends reported have been based. He acknowledges also permission by the University of Chicago Press to draw freely on articles published for him in the *School Review* in its issues for October, November, and December, 1953, under the title, "Junior High School Reorganization after a Half-Century."

LEONARD V. KOOS

Newaygo, Michigan
March, 1955

JUNIOR HIGH SCHOOL TRENDS

CHAPTER I

The Growth and Status of Reorganization

A TIME FOR INVENTORY

It is now a full half-century and more since the establishment and operation of prototypes of the junior high school, and an appropriate point at which to take stock of the reorganization movement. Although it is only something over forty years since the establishment of 3-year units in Columbus, Ohio, and in Berkeley and Los Angeles, California, there had been 2-year units and 6-year high schools including grades 7 and 8 ten or more years earlier. Thus, the span of existence of reorganized schools may properly be considered as extending over a period of about fifty years. Advocacy of reorganization, to be sure, reaches back much further.

A long-time interest in the movement has prompted the present writer to undertake this inventory of the growth and status of the movement and a review of thinking regarding it and to consider the prospects of further reorganization. His book was one of the early commercial publications¹ dealing exclusively with the new unit, although a few noncommercial mono-

¹ Leonard V. Koos, *The Junior High School*, Harcourt, Brace & Howe, 1920. This book was republished in an "enlarged edition" by Ginn & Company in 1927 and this later edition has been out of print for many years. The first commercial book in the field was *The Junior High School* by Guy Vernon Bennett, published by Warwick & York, Inc., in 1919. Another early book, bearing the same title, was published in 1920 for Thomas H. Briggs by Houghton Mifflin Company.

graphs were in print at earlier dates. A stock-taking seems desirable in view of a questioning attitude toward the movement in some quarters, which is reflected in occasional periodical articles appearing recently with captions like "Has the Junior High School Kept Its Promise?" and "Has the Junior High School Made Good?" and in consideration of similar questions from time to time at educational discussions here and there throughout the country.

While numerous statements could be quoted which are favorable to the junior high school, it seems more in point at the outset of the report of an inquiry into the whole development to cite a few instances of statements indicative of doubt concerning the merits of the movement as it has worked out in practice. A well-known president of a teachers' college, now retired, has said,² "The junior high school was the most popular part of the public school system when it was first established. It was a bright spot. During the last ten years the junior high school seems to have lost ground." An educationist in a higher institution, in an article in the main favorable, said,³ "In the past few years many educators have been looking back on this development and questioned if the junior high school has realized the hopes held for it." Another educationist in one of our state universities went further than expressing doubt when in 1945 he said,⁴ "It is now generally recognized that in most respects the junior high school has failed to fulfill the promise of those who pioneered in its development." Even more convinced of the failure of the junior high school are the principals quoted by another professor of secondary education in one of our large private universities in an address which concluded by indicating his own belief that the junior high school "has made a superior contribu-

² George Willard Frasier, "The Junior High School as an Educational Problem," *California Journal of Secondary Education*, XXVII (February 1952), pp. 112-115.

³ Lester Beals, "The Junior High School—Past and Present," *Bulletin of the National Association of Secondary School Principals*, XXXVI (January, 1952), pp. 15-24.

⁴ Harold Alberty, "Reorganizing the Junior High School Curriculum," *Bulletin of the National Association of Secondary School Principals*, XXIX (April, 1945), p. 17.

tion to our way of life.”⁵ He referred to a letter in his files from a senior high school principal in New York City in which this principal states that “the senior high school principals openly condemn the junior high schools” and “almost to a man they would like to see the junior high schools abandoned.”

The present writer’s preparation for the inventory reported in this monograph is more or less continuous contact with the reorganization movement for more than a third of a century. This contact has involved personal visits, extending from 1915 to the date of writing, to upwards of two hundred schools of several existing patterns of reorganization—visits that were often accompanied by participation in surveys of the schools and school systems represented. The observations from these contacts have been extended by canvassing all available recently published literature, inclusive of books and articles in periodicals dealing with junior high school reorganization. The literature includes all reports on status and trends and reports of evaluative projects. The first-hand contacts and the reading have been supplemented by information given in an extensive body of current materials relating to purposes, programs, and activities in junior high schools—materials supplied by administrators in twenty-four school systems in sixteen states distributed to all sections of the nation and representing one hundred or more individual school situations.

GROWTH IN NUMBERS AND PROPORTIONS OF SCHOOLS

Report on the growth and status of junior high school reorganization during the earlier decades of the movement is hampered by the lack of systematic and official counts of schools and systems operating under the new plans. Among the earliest enumerations are those prepared by Douglass⁶ and Briggs,⁷ but an indi-

⁵ Forrest E. Long, “Trends in Junior High School Education,” *Bulletin of the National Association of Secondary School Principals*, XXXV (April, 1951), pp. 143–151.

⁶ Aubrey A. Douglass, *The Junior High School*, Part III of the *Fifteenth Yearbook of the National Society for the Study of Education*, 1917, pp. 27 and 140–145.

⁷ Thomas H. Briggs, *op. cit.*, pp. 60–62.

cation of trends in them, except in a very general way, is hardly possible because the data are not in comparable form with those in later compilations. The United States Office of Education, the logical agency for assembling such information, did not make a systematic count of reorganized schools until the early twenties. Fortunately for purposes here, the Office has made counts on comparable bases at intervals since then and from the compilations, which are reported in Table 1, it is possible to note the growth in the 30-year span from 1922-1952. Figure 1, based on the evidence in the table, has been prepared to aid in interpreting the information. The inclusion in the table and figure of evidence concerning "regular" high schools, that is, 4-year high schools in unreorganized systems, makes possible a direct comparison of numbers and proportions of reorganized with unreorganized schools.

The general impression afforded by the table and figure is one of rapid and almost steady growth of reorganization and gain on unreorganized schools throughout the three decades represented. By the end of the period, reorganized schools substantially outnumbered the regular high schools. A cursory glance at the rate of increase will find it to have been fully as rapid during the latest interval as during any previous period.

THE PATTERNS OF REORGANIZATION

Evidence in the table and figure is presented in such a way as to show the proportionate contributions of separate junior high schools, separate senior high schools, and junior-senior high schools to the total reorganization. However, the numbers and proportions of schools of the various combinations of grades such as three-grade junior high schools, are not shown and this information is not regularly available. In 1930 The National Survey of Secondary Education coöperated with the Office of Education in gathering the evidence concerning reorganization and inquired into the grade-patterns of reorganization. Table 2 is based on information gathered for the Survey and discloses

TABLE 1. Number of the Various Types of Public High Schools in the United States, 1922-1952^a

| Type | 1922 | | 1930 | | 1938 | | 1946 | | 1952 ^b | |
|----------------------------|-------------|------------------------|-------------|------------------------|-------------|------------------------|-------------|------------------------|-------------------|------------------------|
| | Num- ber | Percent of Total | Num- ber | Percent of Total | Num- ber | Percent of Total | Num- ber | Percent of Total | Num- ber | Percent of Total |
| Junior high schools | 387 | 2.8 | 1,842 | 8.3 | 2,372 | 9.6 | 2,647 | 11.1 | 3,227 | 13.6 |
| Junior-senior high schools | 1,088 | 7.7 | 3,287 | 14.8 | 6,203 | 25.2 | 6,358 | 26.5 | 8,591 | 36.2 |
| Senior high schools | 91 | 0.6 | 648 | 2.9 | 959 | 3.9 | 1,317 | 5.5 | 1,760 | 7.4 |
| All reorganized schools | 1,566 | 11.1 | 5,777 | 26.0 | 9,534 | 38.7 | 10,322 | 43.1 | 13,578 | 57.2 |
| Regular high schools | 12,490 | 88.9 | 16,460 | 74.0 | 15,056 | 61.3 | 13,625 | 56.9 | 10,168 | 42.8 |
| Total | 14,056 | 100.0 | 22,237 | 100.0 | 24,590 | 100.0 | 23,947 | 100.0 | 23,746 | 100.0 |

^a Based, for evidence for 1922, 1930, 1938, and 1946 on *Statistics of Public High Schools, 1945-46*, Table VII, p. 11. United States Office of Education, *Biennial Survey of Education in the United States, 1944-46*, chap. v, Washington: Government Printing Office, 1949.

^b Based, for 1952, on information supplied in correspondence with this writer by Walter H. Gaumnitz of the United States Office of Education. Includes for this year small high schools with enrollment from 1 to 9.

Junior High School Trends

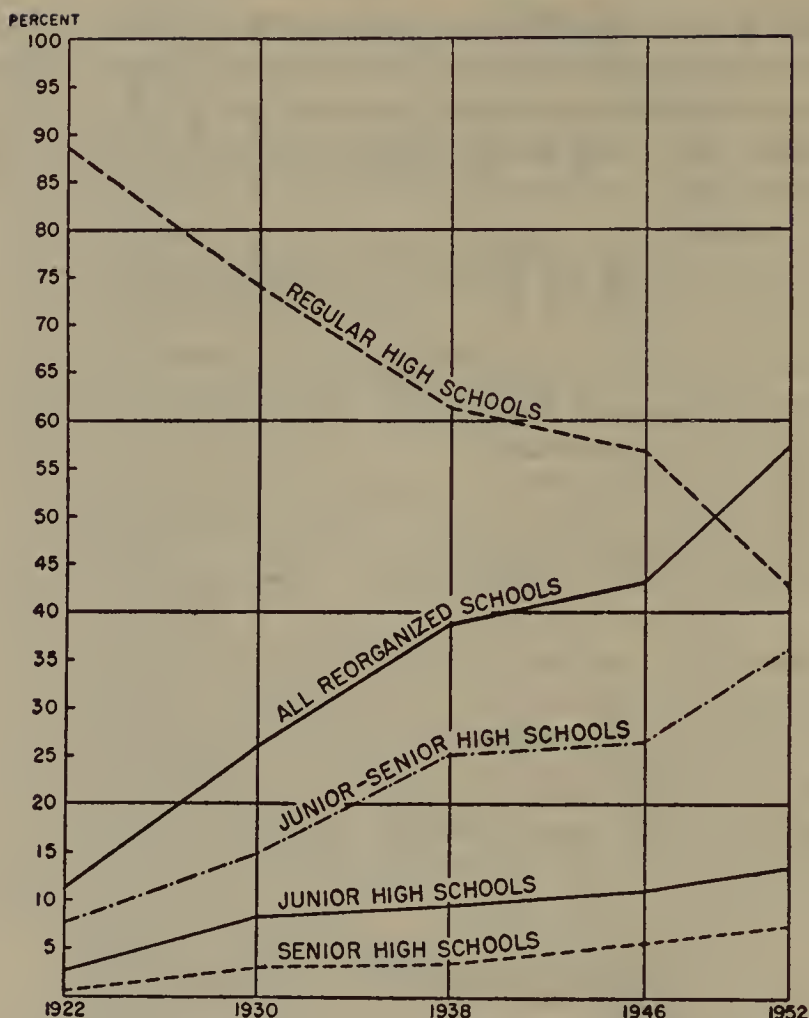


FIGURE 1. Percent that junior high schools, senior high schools, junior-senior high schools, all reorganized schools, and regular high schools were of all public secondary schools in 1922, 1930, 1938, 1946, and 1952 (based on data in Table 1).

the grade-groupings reported for the 5470 schools in what are referred to in the report as the "major patterns" of reorganization. The small number of remaining reorganized schools identified in that year were of less common grade-patterns, like two-grade senior high schools, one-grade junior high schools, three-

grade junior high schools including grades 6–8, etc. It is clear from this table that in 1930 the predominant grade-groupings involved three-grade junior high schools, three-grade senior high schools, and 6-year schools reported to be on a 3–3 or “undivided” basis.

TABLE 2. Numbers of Reorganized Schools of Different Grade-Groupings in 1929–1930^a

| Type of School | Number |
|--------------------------------------|--------|
| Junior high schools: | |
| Two-grade | 204 |
| Three-grade | 1348 |
| Four-grade | 196 |
| Senior high schools: | |
| Three-grade | 496 |
| Four-grade | 142 |
| Junior-senior and undivided schools: | |
| Junior-senior, 3–3 | 936 |
| Junior-senior, 2–4 | 637 |
| Undivided, 6-year | 1446 |
| Undivided, 5-year | 65 |
| Total | 5470 |

^a Based on Francis T. Spaulding, O. I. Frederick, and Leonard V. Koos, *The Reorganization of Secondary Education*, Fig. 3, p. 53. National Survey of Secondary Education, Monograph No. 5. United States Office of Education Bulletin 1932, No. 17.

It may be noted that, while Table 1 contains the category “junior-senior high schools,” Table 2 lists both “junior-senior” and “undivided” 6-year and 5-year high schools. This is because for the first table utilized here, the compiler combined the two under a single category, although he reports in the textual interpretation the number of “undivided” high schools as having increased from 3060 to 3326 from 1938 to 1946 and, therefore, accounting for the entire increase of the “junior-senior” classification during that interval.⁸

⁸ *Loc. cit.*, p. 11.

This writer, having been a party to the compilation of the status of reorganization in 1930, is disposed to belittle the significance of the distinction between the terms "junior-senior" and "undivided" as applied to these compilations, for the reason that he recalls that no criteria were set up to distinguish the schools represented. The heads of the schools and systems were left to their own discretion in reporting their organizations under classifications. It is not that there is no distinction in theory between a "junior-senior" and an "undivided" school, but that in actual practice, one individual school reported as an undivided 6-year school might be effecting as much or more separation between junior and senior levels than another one reporting to operate on a junior-senior basis. For the purposes here of reviewing growth and trends, these two categories may be regarded as a single inclusive group.

GROWTH IN PROPORTIONATE ENROLLMENTS

In some ways a better measure of growth and status of reorganization than has been reported in Table 1 and Figure 1 is to be found in the percentages of all pupils who are enrolled in reorganized and in regular high schools, since we have in it a more nearly direct measure of the actual proportion of the school population brought under the influence of reorganized schools. The specific measures used here are the percentages of all pupils in the last four high school years (usually, but not always, grades 9-12) in reorganized systems and in regular high schools, irrespective of the grade-grouping of the system. The percentages for certain years at intervals beginning with 1922 are shown both in Table 3 and in Figure 2. To simplify presentation, the numbers of pupils are not reproduced, although it may be reported illustratively that, for 1952, a total of 5,673,867 pupils in these four grades is represented, 3,739,622 in reorganized and 1,934,245 in regular high schools.

The evidence in this table and figure as compared with that in Table 1 and Figure 1 underscores the rapidity of the rate of

TABLE 3. Percents of Pupils in the Last Four High-School Years Enrolled in Reorganized and in Regular High Schools, 1922-1952^a

| Year | Percent of Pupils | |
|------|-------------------------|--------------------|
| | In Re-organized Schools | In Regular Schools |
| 1922 | 13.5 | 86.5 |
| 1926 | 28.3 | 71.7 |
| 1930 | 33.9 | 66.1 |
| 1934 | 37.0 | 63.0 |
| 1938 | 45.6 | 54.4 |
| 1946 | 50.9 | 49.1 |
| 1952 | 65.9 | 34.1 |

^a Data for 1922, 1926, 1930, 1934, and 1938 based on *Statistics of Public High Schools, 1937-38*, Fig. 2, p. 10. *Biennial Survey of Education in the United States*, chap. v. United States Office of Education Bulletin 1940, No. 2.

Data for 1946 based on *Statistics of Public High Schools, 1945-46*, Table 9, pp. 36-39. *Biennial Survey of Education in the United States, 1944-46*, chap. v.

Data for 1952 based on information supplied in correspondence with this writer by Walter H. Gaumnitz of the United States Office of Education.

reorganization throughout the period. Reorganization, measured in this way, had become numerically predominant by 1946, and by 1952 enrolled approximately two-thirds of all pupils in the last four high-school years of public secondary schools. When attention is directed to the rates of increment during individual intervals, it may be noted that the only two during which there was marked retardation of rate were immediately following 1930 and between 1938 and 1946. The reader can explain for himself the first of these slowdowns by recalling the influence of the early years of the great depression. When resources were again available for building construction, on which reorganization must usually wait, the reacceleration shown between 1933 and 1938 took place. The clamping down of priorities on building materials before and during World War II will explain the second retardation, which was in turn followed by another striking reacceleration.

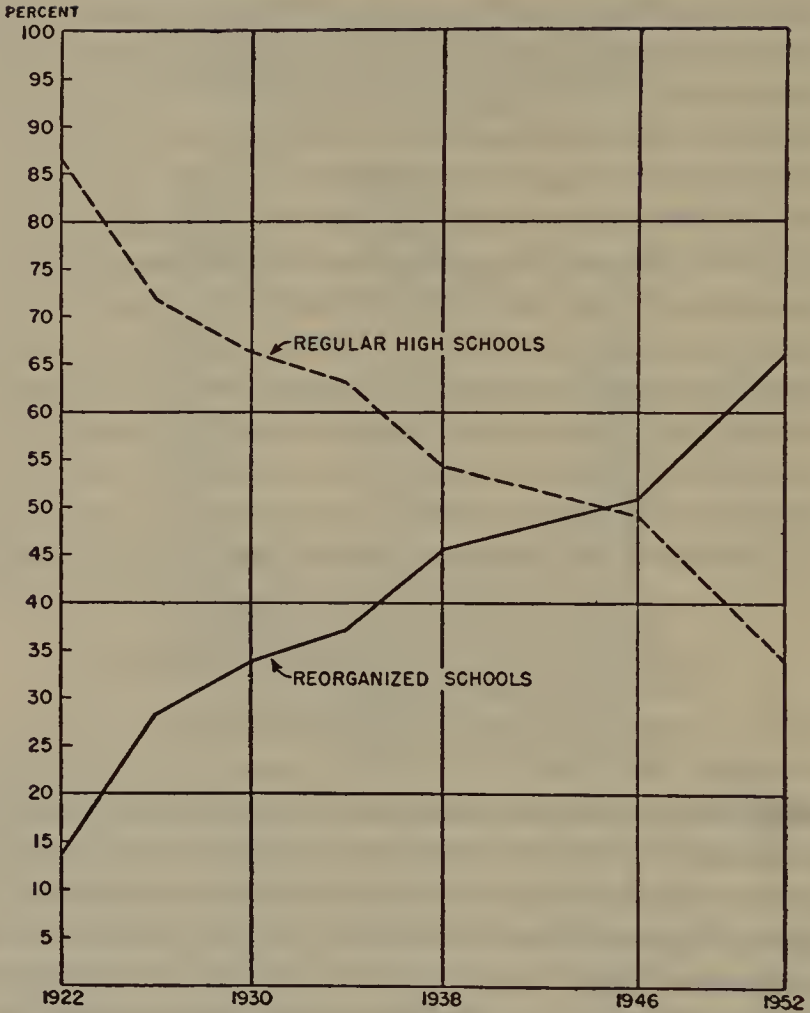


FIGURE 2. Percent of all pupils enrolled in the last four high-school years in 1922 to 1952 who were enrolled in reorganized and in regular high schools (based on Table 3).

Still another measure of the status and growth of reorganization is to be found in the proportions of all pupils in grades 7 and 8 in public schools that are enrolled in reorganized schools. The percentage of pupils advanced between 1946 and 1952 in Grade 7 from 37.5 to 47.0; in Grade 8, from 44.4 to 55.8; and in both grades combined, from 39.3 to 51.2. In this measure,

also, reorganized schools have attained numerical predominance.

Because some readers may have seen another recent use of the sources of evidence drawn upon in this report of proportionate enrollments in reorganized and regular high schools, one in which the percentages seem to differ from those given here, special mention is made of the differing bases of computation in the reports. The other use is by Walter H. Gaumnitz, specialist in the United States Office of Education.⁹ The proportions of schools reported in the two uses of the data are at variance in fractional percentages only. The proportions of enrollments, however, are at much wider variance, with the percentages for reorganized schools notably larger in the Gaumnitz article than in the tables and figures in this chapter. For example, the percent of pupils shown by Gaumnitz as being enrolled in all types of reorganized schools in 1952 is 74.8, whereas in this chapter it is 65.9. The reason for the difference is that in the Gaumnitz article it is the percent which enrollments in all types of reorganized schools *irrespective of grade* are of *all* secondary school enrollments, while the figure in this chapter is the percent which the enrollments in the four high school grades (usually 9–12) in reorganized schools are of enrollments in those same grades in all high schools. Gaumnitz has followed the practice of previous articles in *School Life* on the same subject, which brings in the enrollment in grades (usually 7 and 8) below the first high school year in reorganized schools, although they are not included in the figures for traditional schools. The inclusion is legitimate, and is acceptable as a measure of the extent of reorganization, but it affords a somewhat magnified impression of the extent of reorganization. However, both measures establish a rapid and continuous gain of reorganized on unreorganized schools and a marked numerical predominance in recent years of reorganized schools.

The article just cited reports a further finding of considerable

⁹ "Trends in Public High School Reorganization," *School Life*, XXXVI (February, 1954), pp. 77–78.

importance based on a comparison of proportions of reorganized schools in population centers of different size-groups. This finding is to the effect that reorganization has been "much more popular" in larger population centers than in rural areas. Statistical evidence for this inference is supplied in an article by Gaumnitz in collaboration with J. Dan Hull.¹⁰

A FLOURISHING MOVEMENT

Before leaving consideration of the numerical status and trends of junior high school reorganization it is desirable to draw, for purposes of comparison, on the evidence and conclusions in this particular area from a rather recent inquiry reported in a *Bulletin* issued by the Research Division of the National Education Association.¹¹ The specific materials referred to here concern the (1) "patterns of organization" and (2) "changes in the number of junior schools in operation" in city school systems.

1. The tabulation of patterns of organization as reported from 1372 city systems in this inquiry yielded the following proportionate frequencies: 6-3-3, 35 percent; 8-4, 23 percent; 6-6, 16 percent; 6-2-4, 12 percent; 6-3-3-2, 4 percent; 7-5, 3 percent; 5-3-4, 2 percent; 6-2-4-2, 1 percent; 7-2-3, 1 percent; "other," 3 percent. In commenting on the evidence, the *Bulletin* says, "In these cities the 6-3-3 plan of organization . . . is used as the prevailing type more frequently than any other. Nevertheless, this plan is the prevailing type in only about one-third of the city systems." In further comment, the *Bulletin* says that the diversity of plans "demonstrates rather clearly that variation and experimentation is still the order of the day in the matter of school organization and that as yet no single pattern has become the clearly dominant type." The interpretation, while

¹⁰ Walter H. Gaumnitz and J. Dan Hull, "Junior High Schools versus the Traditional (8-4) High School Organization," *Bulletin of the National Association of Secondary School Principals*, XXXVIII (March, 1954), Table 3, p. 119.

¹¹ *Trends in City School Organization, 1938 to 1948*, National Education Association Research Bulletin, XXVII, No. 1 (February, 1949), pp. 10-11.

correct as to the external evidence, overlooks the impressively important fact underlying the figures, that the patterns involving *some* plan of junior high school reorganization, designed to serve better than the traditional organization the early adolescent, include all those groupings listed excepting the 8-4 and, probably, also some of the 3 percent of "other" patterns. The total of the percentages of all the reorganized patterns is not less than 74, which is more than three times the proportion still following the traditional plan and almost three-fourths of all systems reporting.

2. The Research Bulletin referred to, in a section called "The Junior High School, 1938 to 1948," also reports in a table the changes in the numbers of junior high schools in operation in 1598 city school systems during the ten-year interval represented. Following are sentences from the interpretation of the table.

For the most part, the table indicates comparatively little change with respect to junior high schools, especially in the groups of smaller cities. . . . In the larger cities the number of junior high schools has fluctuated somewhat more than in the smaller ones; but no important net increase has occurred. . . .

. . . When allowance is made for those [junior high schools] undoubtedly established merely because of population growth in cities already having the junior high school unit, it is apparent that the number of school systems changing from the traditional elementary-secondary plan to a pattern of elementary, junior high, and senior high schools has been relatively small.¹²

Here again the interpretation accords with the evidence in the table referred to while at the same time leaving unsaid something that would afford a better understanding of actual reorganizational trends. In the first place, the particular span of years covered by the evidence turned out to be unrepresentative of long-time trends, a fact which could hardly have been foreseen at the time of making the inquiry. Departure from the long-time trend

¹² *Op. cit.*, pp. 11-12.

is more readily discernible in retrospect than immediately following the events being interpreted, and failure of adequate inference is, therefore, certainly excusable. As may be inferred from what was said above in interpreting Table 3 and Figure 2, materials for construction were not available for new housing that would have been required for any significant increase in the number of junior units. As soon as priorities were lifted, reacceleration was resumed. In the second place, as may be judged from the comment above on other grade-patterns embodying junior high school reorganization, an inquiry considering changes merely in the number of *separate* junior units can give only a partial picture of the trends.

While taking stock of the full extent of reorganization, mention should be made of the efforts in many systems at simulating the features of the junior high school in the upper grades of 8-year elementary schools and in the early years of 4-year high schools. The efforts include such modifications as introduction of general courses and the core curriculum, programs of extra-class activities, guidance programs, and provisions for individual differences among pupils. In some elementary schools, especially the larger ones, the changes have been achieved with some degree of success. The same is true in 4-year high schools, where the orientation program in Grade 9 sometimes takes on some of the characteristics of the junior high school. However, as will become apparent in later chapters, full realization of the advantages of reorganization is not attainable in the schools of the traditional grade-grouping. Nevertheless, the changes are a part of the full picture of reorganization, and to the reorganization movement should go credit for such improvement as has been achieved.

In view of all the evidence, it cannot be denied that, as measured by the numbers and proportions of schools and of pupils affected, junior high school reorganization has been over a long period—a half century and more—a most dynamic movement. It is safe to say that it has been no less dynamic than any other recent movement in American education, especially when ac-

count is taken of the fact that, through internal modifications in the school, it embodies several other vital movements. The magnitude and significance of this movement will become more apparent as the changes within these schools are reviewed in the following chapters, which are concerned with the purposes of reorganization, the various features incorporated, and the prospects of further reorganization.

CHAPTER II

The Purposes of Reorganization

THE AIMS OF EDUCATION

It should go without saying that any unit in our school system, whether it be elementary school, junior high school, senior high school, or college, should make its contribution toward achieving the basic aims or purposes of education. These aims have been variously stated from time to time. Interest here is mainly in recent formulations.

Because it has been approved by what may be regarded as a committee of spokesmen of our largest organization of teachers and administrators and, therefore, may be assumed to be influential in practice, the first formulation of aims to be drawn on illustratively is that of the Educational Policies Commission of the National Education Association. This body "set the goals for education of youth" in terms of ten "imperative needs of youth" which are stated as follows:

1. All youth need to develop saleable skills.
2. All youth need to develop and maintain good health and physical fitness.
3. All youth need to understand the rights and duties of the citizen of a democratic society.
4. All youth need to understand the significance of the family for the individual and society.
5. All youth need to know how to purchase and use goods and services intelligently.

6. All youth need to understand the influence of science on human life.
7. All youth need an appreciation of literature, art, music, and nature.
8. All youth need to be able to use their leisure time well and to budget it wisely.
9. All youth need to develop respect for other persons.
10. All youth need to grow in their ability to think rationally.¹

Recent statements of aims of education by individual educational leaders vary, to be sure, from person to person. Needs at the point will be served by quoting from one formulation only, which the author refers to as "an illustrative statement of areas of school purposes." These areas are:²

To help every student grow up successfully in our society and to build his mental health and achieve maximum personality development and personal effectiveness.

To help each student get a chance to sample various types of recreational activities and to develop skill in a few.

To provide each child with vocational guidance and that part of general education needed for vocational purposes.

To teach the skills of democratic planning and discussion.

To teach the skills of reflective thinking and group problem solving.

To support the established family pattern of Western civilization by realistic study of problems and difficulties.

To develop an understanding of world-wide social problems and concern with our country's role in world peace.

To study continuously the meaning of democracy, to create awareness of the need for the extension of that meaning, to protect against violation of the basic democratic faith.

To develop literacy in all citizens: language, quantitative, economic, industrial.

¹ *Planning for American Youth*, National Association of Secondary School Principals, Washington, D.C., 1944, p. 10.

² Edward A. Krug, *Curriculum Planning*, Harper & Brothers, 1950, pp. 64-67.

Since the intent here is merely to illustrate recent formulations, no detailed comparative analysis is undertaken. However, even a cursory reading discloses, with some exceptions, large areas of correspondence between them. This is because both of these useful working statements are cast in terms of important areas of life and living to effectiveness in which, as previously asserted, schools at any level should make contribution.

OBSOLEScent AND ABIDING PURPOSES OF REORGANIZATION

At the same time that general aims of education like those in the foregoing illustrative formulations are applicable to schools largely without distinction as to level, persons conversant with the junior high school movement are aware that over a long period certain special purposes have been put forward for junior high schools. A movement of the magnitude manifested in the rapidly growing and predominant status of junior high school reorganization could not have flourished without the pressure of many and diverse educational needs which were not being met in the upper elementary-school and lower high-school grades of schools conventionally organized. As reorganization to meet the needs proceeded, they were reflected in claims made on behalf of the reorganized schools. The claims, in turn, were readily transmutable, through validation by speculation, or by objective inquiry, or by both, into what were often referred to as the special purposes, or "peculiar functions," of the junior high school. Examination of the early literature discloses a welter of these presumed-to-be purposes of this new unit in school organization.

Among the potent factors conditioning or modifying special purposes at any school level must be social and economic trends. Certain of these trends during the half-century since the inception of the idea of the junior high school have been such as to discredit some of the early claims and purposes. Instances in point may be cited.

The period of first advocacy of junior high school reorganization was one during which there was large-scale elimination from school, notably heaviest in the particular grades included in the junior high school. It was only natural that one of the purposes claimed for reorganization would be "better retention" in school. Everyone is aware of the forces and trends that have, in the meantime, made for a longer period of school attendance. It is likely that the junior high school has helped to lengthen the period of schooling, but we may be sure that economic and social trends outside the school have been more influential than the school itself.

Again, a purpose of early advocacy for the junior high school was vocational education. The advocacy stemmed from an awareness of the fact that children dropped out of school during these school years and sought employment without having been prepared for it. Technological trends, with the accompanying lengthening of the period of compulsory schooling, have in the interim excluded youth of these ages from employment and raised above junior high school years the level at which specific vocational education is appropriate.

An instance of the early acceptance of the vocational education purpose for the junior high school years is afforded in a bulletin issued in 1920 by the Federal Board for Vocational Education.³ The publication reports the results of a survey of "junior occupations" made in nineteen northern and western states with the help of state directors of vocational education. The bulletin displays, among other information, the numerical distribution of boys and girls of 14, 15, 16, and 17 years of age by the positions held. Among the positions in addition to "messenger" (the most frequent) in which youth of these ages were found to be employed in impressive numbers were general clerk, stock clerk, switchboard operator, file clerk, mail clerk, and salesman (retail

³ *Survey of Junior Commercial Occupations*, Commercial Education Series No. 4, Washington, D.C., Government Printing Office, June, 1920.

store) among others. It is not surprising, therefore, that the authors of the bulletin included as one of the objectives in the commercial field "for boys and girls of continuation and junior high school ages . . . a marketable skill in one or more selected types of commercial work. . . ." It was about this time that courses in "junior business training" had their rapid development in junior high schools. They are still being given in many schools, although with the vocational purposes now played down and the other objectives related to general education and exploratory experiences relatively more prominent.

Thinking along the lines of obsolescent purposes has persuaded certain writers in recent years to contend that the junior high school is without distinctive purposes. Thus, says one educationist, after citing instances of disappearing functions akin to those mentioned in the preceding paragraphs: "We are forced to conclude that, by and large, the junior high school is merely a convenient administrative unit which has few, if any, distinctive functions and little psychological justification."⁴ Significantly, the same writer goes on to say that, "even though the junior high school as a distinctive unit has not fully demonstrated its worth, the *"problem of developing a satisfactory curriculum for the early adolescent still remains."*⁵ As will be seen in the consideration of functions to follow, he thus acknowledges the key to the abiding purposes of junior high school reorganization. Alberty's conviction of the need of a greatly modified program during adolescence is underscored in the chapter on "Understanding the Adolescent" in his book on the secondary school curriculum.⁶

In a somewhat similar vein, another writer, himself in charge of a junior high school in a large city school system, asserted a dozen years ago, "Most of the functions formulated during the campaign years when the junior high school was the subject in

⁴Harold Alberty, "Reorganizing the Junior High School Curriculum," *Bulletin of the National Association of Secondary School Principals*, XXIX (April, 1945), p. 18.

⁵*Loc. cit.* Italics not in the original.

⁶Harold Alberty, *Reorganizing the High School Curriculum*, rev. ed., New York, The Macmillan Company, 1953, Chapter IV.

disputation have been outmoded in one way or another.”⁷ At the same time, while discrediting “peculiar functions” of the junior high school, the same writer speaks of “obligations” of the unit, “which are generally recognized today,” among which he mentions “guidance,” “exploration,” “adaptation to individual differences,” and “subject-matter integration.” These “obligations” differ hardly at all from purposes advocated for the junior high school over practically its full period of existence.

THREE INQUIRIES INDICATING ABIDING PURPOSES

In order to identify somewhat more specifically the abiding special purposes of junior high school education, recourse will here be taken to three inquiries of which published outcomes are available. All three were aimed at finding the degree of consensus in behalf of various functions claimed for the junior high school.

One of these inquiries dates back to 1927, and not long before the midperiod of junior high school development. It was made by the Research Division of the National Education Association.⁸ The procedure followed in this inquiry was similar to one that had been used earlier by the present writer and involved analysis of the published statements concerning purposes made by public school administrators and “college specialists” to find the nature of the purposes and the frequencies of their recurrence in the literature examined. This inquiry found the four most frequently recurring special purposes to be, in the order from highest frequency downward, “meeting the individual differences of pupils,” “prevocational training and exploration,” “counseling or guidance,” and “meeting the needs of the early adolescent group.” The term “prevocational training” had various interpretations at the time but its predominant meaning is implied by its association with “exploration.” The four purposes identified as most

⁷ M. E. Herriott, “The Junior High Schools of California,” *California Journal of Secondary Education*, XV (December, 1941), pp. 460-464.

⁸ *The Junior High School Curriculum*, Fifth Yearbook of the Department of Superintendence, Washington, D.C., 1927, pp. 20 ff.

prominent in this inquiry had also been found to be among the most recurrent in the present writer's early analysis.⁹

The two other inquiries are more recent, having been published in the late forties. One of these was made by Howell,¹⁰ who submitted to "more than a hundred selected junior high school administrators" a list of forty-five "original aims" of the junior high school, which had been compiled from a "voluminous study of junior high school texts and articles dealing with the subject from the time the junior high school was conceived." The respondents had been asked to indicate which of the aims were "(1) As valid as ever, (2) Less valid than before, (3) [of] No special value, and (4) No longer valid." In presenting the outcomes of his inquiry in tabular form, the author says, ". . . we may well conclude that the original aims and purposes . . . are still valid and acceptable with only a modicum of change." This opinion of persistence may be illustrated by pointing out that the aims indicated by 90 percent or more of the respondents as being "as valid as ever" were:

To provide a suitable environment for children 12-16 years of age.

Exploring interests, abilities, and aptitudes of those ages.

Adapting training and education to individual interests and needs.

To help the individual find himself.

Caring for individual differences in the various subjects.

Special care for retarded pupils.

Participation of pupils in school governmental activities.

Physical diagnosis and remedial work for individuals.

It may be too obvious to mention that within these illustrations are comprehended the time-honored functions of recognition of the nature of the child at adolescence, guidance, exploration, and provision for individual differences.

⁹ Leonard V. Koos, *The Junior High School*, New York, Harcourt, Brace & Howe, 1920, pp. 18-19.

¹⁰ Clarence E. Howell, "Junior High: How Valid Are Its Original Aims?" *Clearing House*, XXIII (October, 1948), pp. 75-88.

The other relatively recent study cited here is reported by Gruhn and Douglass¹¹ in their book on the junior high school. This study involved submission of a tentative formulation of six functions to "a selected group of specialists in the theory and philosophy of the junior high school." The respondents were asked to indicate whether, in their opinions, each tentative item is a "major function," a "minor function," or "not a function." Three of these items, namely, "exploration," "guidance," and "differentiation," received the approval, in at least one important aspect, of all respondents. Most other items, namely, "integration," "socialization," and "articulation," approached unanimous approval. The list submitted to the specialists included no reference to the junior high school as serving the needs of early adolescents, although the authors admit that "no one today would quarrel with that as a purpose of the junior high school." They think that the "concept is so broad and all-inclusive that it has little value as a statement of function."¹² This interpretation of the relation of the needs of adolescence to the formulation of functions suggests that no violence is done to it by inferring that the authors regard at least most of the functions to be in the nature of particularizations of recognizing the needs.

ADOLESCENCE AND REORGANIZATION

Any review of literature dealing with junior high school reorganization inevitably reveals that the purpose of serving the needs of youth during early adolescence has been prominent from the beginning a half-century or so ago. A psychologist who early directed attention to these needs was G. Stanley Hall, whose two-volume work *Adolescence* was published in 1904. In writing and speaking long before this date he had advocated educational reorganization to meet the needs of adolescent youth. Investigative procedures which had been used by Hall, and, in consequence, some of his conclusions concerning the nature and

¹¹ William T. Gruhn and Harl R. Douglass, *The Modern Junior High School*, New York, Ronald Press Co., 1947, Chapter III.

¹² *Ibid.*, p. 56.

changes at adolescence, were subsequently questioned, and some critics went so far as to deny changes of sufficient moment to justify important modifications of the educational program to meet the needs. However, investigation of the physical, social and emotional, and intellectual nature of youth, together with the needs represented, has been continued and enlarged over the years and has increasingly underwritten the need for an educational program taking cognizance of this nature.

Careful examination of the educational implications for early adolescence in any of the better recent treatises on the psychology of adolescence should bring conviction on this score. One of the most revealing recent compilations in this connection is to be found in *Guides to Curriculum Building: The Junior High School Level*,¹³ which was prepared by the Wisconsin Coöperative Educational Planning Program. This compilation includes a systematic portrayal of the known physical, social and emotional, and intellectual characteristics of children of junior high school ages; the pupil needs indicated by these characteristics; and "what the school can do" to meet the needs. Scrutiny of the portrayal can hardly fail to convince that a major and special responsibility of the school at this level is the recognition of the nature of the child at adolescence and that adequate recognition is impossible without large-scale modifications of the programs and regimens common to the later grades of the 8-year elementary school and first years of the 4-year high school.

The compilation just mentioned convinces the reader not only of the all-pervasive purpose of recognizing early adolescent nature but also of the relevancy of the other purposes recurrently assigned to junior high school reorganization. The testimony concerning individual differences¹⁴ leaves no room for denying that differentiation on an increasing scale is essential at this level. The need for exploration is made explicit in the indication of

¹³ A publication reprinted with permission by the Illinois Secondary School Curriculum Program, Bulletin No. 8, Circular Series A, No. 51, Springfield, Ill., Superintendent of Public Instruction, 1950.

¹⁴ *Ibid.*, p. 61 and elsewhere.

"social experience in groups" as an important part of the program, the "amazing intellectual curiosity" in this age group, the "increased interest on the part of boys and girls in . . . vocational plans,"¹⁵ and elsewhere. The need for guidance in other than exploratory aspects is explicit at many other points in the compilation. In an important sense, these additional purposes are corollary to the all-pervasive function, or they may be regarded as important phases of it. The need for performing these and other corollary functions is reinforced by many of the "social pressures influencing junior high school youth" which are identified in another section of the compilation.¹⁶

Another informative and comprehensive presentation of the characteristics and needs of adolescents is to be found in a yearbook of the National Society for the Study of Education.¹⁷ The individual chapters were contributed by authorities in the areas represented, most of whom have contributed by original research to what is known about the growth and characteristics of youth. Although the chapters have little or nothing to say about the relationship of the nature of youth at this stage to grade-grouping in school organization, it is apparent throughout that the conventional (8-4) pattern is an ill-contrived misfit to the age-incidence of growth and change. While much of the evidence is presented to cover the full period of adolescence, the treatment includes adequate attention to its earlier stages and certain of the chapters are devoted largely to this stage. An instance of this is the chapter on "The Adolescent Peer Culture" (Chapter XII) in which the author, Tryon, summarized researches made on peer-group culture mainly in junior high school years.

INTENSIFICATION IN THE PEER CULTURE AT ADOLESCENCE

The understanding of peer-group culture in early adolescence is so important to those concerned with programs for junior

¹⁵ *Ibid.*, pp. 48, 60, 67.

¹⁶ *Ibid.*, Chapter III.

¹⁷ *Adolescence*. Forty-third Yearbook of the National Society for the Study of Education, Part I, Department of Education, University of Chicago, 1944.

youth that some space must be yielded even in a compact monograph on school reorganization to at least a brief summary. For this purpose, it is convenient to quote a few short paragraphs on the subject by two authors who prepared, for a group of school superintendents in the Chicago area, a digest of the researches and literature bearing on the problem of a suitable program for younger adolescents in the age-group represented by grades 6-9.

1. . . . at the onset of puberty there is a rapid increase in the importance of peer culture to a child. For most children during the secondary school the greatest influence on their behavior is the opinion of the group of children with whom they associate.

2. We have long realized that boys and girls during this period care more about what their friends or gang or clique think than what either their parents or teachers think. What boys and girls consider desirable social behavior, what their ideal person is like, whom they wish to emulate, undergo remarkable changes during the years of junior and senior high school.

3. If we would seek to understand the personal-social relations of any boy or girl in secondary school, we must analyze the standards of his peers. Only in this way can we see him through the eyes of his peers or appreciate the pressures made upon him by this aspect of culture.¹⁸

Another brief statement concerning peer-group culture directed in particular toward its bearing on the adolescents' feelings of frustration, by Segel, may be quoted:¹⁹

. . . with the coming of puberty, belonging to a social group acquires real significance. Social consciousness is developed. This is due in part to an awakening to the expectations of society that he will put aside childish play and interests and will develop social skills more allied to the adult pattern of behavior and in part to his

¹⁸ Dan H. Cooper and Orville E. Peterson, *Schools for Young Adolescents: The Upper Elementary and Lower Secondary Grades*. Publication of the Superintendents' Study Club, Chicago, Ill., June, 1949, pp. 21-22.

¹⁹ David Segel, *Frustration in Adolescent Youth: Its Development and Implications for the School Program*, United States Office of Education Bulletin 1951, No. 1., Washington, D.C., pp. 35-36.

own intensified need to "belong" and to be an integral part of a group of his peers. New patterns of behavior must be learned and adjustments must be made. These new and radically different adjustments in activities and interests and habits increase emotional tension and may result in feelings of frustration which in turn cause overt expressions of jealousy and anger.

DEVELOPMENTAL TASKS OF ADOLESCENCE

A useful concept that has in recent years come into prominence and has important meaning for education at all levels, including that for adolescent years, is the "developmental task." According to Havighurst, who has done most toward elaborating the concept,²⁰ "A developmental task is a task which arises at or about a certain period in the life of the individual, successful achievement of which leads to his happiness and to success with later tasks, while failure leads to unhappiness in the individual, disapproval by the society, and difficulty with later tasks." Some of these tasks, Havighurst goes on to say, "arise mainly from physical maturation," others "primarily from the cultural pressures of society," and still others from the "personal values and aspirations of the individual." In most cases they arise "from combinations of these factors acting together."²¹

Havighurst elaborates ten developmental tasks for adolescence, which are listed here after drawing on his assertion concerning the relation of the peer group, which has just been considered here, to the tasks. It is his opinion that the peer group becomes more and more important as the child moves into adolescence. "Whereas it tended to supplement the home and the school in middle childhood, in adolescence the peer group often takes priority over these institutions in its demands for the allegiance of its members."²² Within the peer group, according to Havighurst, "the adolescent gets the experience necessary to master two of his developmental tasks."

²⁰ Robert J. Havighurst, *Human Development and Education*, New York, Longmans, Green & Co., 1953, p. 2.

²¹ *Ibid.*, p. 5.

²² *Ibid.*, p. 111.

The ten developmental tasks of adolescence identified by Havighurst are:

1. Achieving new and more mature relations with age-mates of both sexes.
2. Achieving a masculine or feminine social role.
3. Accepting one's physique and using the body effectively.
4. Achieving emotional independence of parents and other adults.
5. Achieving assurance of economic independence.
6. Selecting and preparing for an occupation.
7. Preparing for marriage and family life.
8. Developing intellectual skills and concepts necessary for civic competence.
9. Desiring and achieving socially responsible behavior.
10. Acquiring a set of values and an ethical system as a guide to behavior.²³

The tasks listed are posited as impinging on the full period of adolescence. However, speculation over them makes it apparent that certain of the tasks, while of significance throughout the period, bear more heavily on later than on earlier portions of the period. This can be true of tasks 5, 6, and 7, respectively, achieving assurance of economic independence, selecting and preparing for an occupation, and preparing for marriage and family life. However, it would be a mistake to assume that they are in no important degree applicable to early adolescence, which is the junior high school period.

THE PREËMINENCE OF ADOLESCENCE

The upshot of this brief review is that serving the nature and needs of early adolescence is revealed as the preëminent purpose of junior high school reorganization. A recent writer on the subject of "The Functions of Today's Junior High Schools" repeats

²³ *Ibid.*, pp. 111-147. A shorter list is presented by Stephen M. Corey in Chapter V of Hollis L. Caswell (editor), *The American High School: Its Responsibility and Opportunity*, Harper & Brothers, 1946. Corey acknowledges indebtedness to Havighurst and Daniel M. Prescott for their concept of the developmental task.

an assertion often made, that "the junior high school had its origins in the unmet needs of early adolescents."²⁴ The more we learn about junior youth, whether the knowledge is put in the form of a systematic catalogue of the physical, social and emotional, and intellectual characteristics and the needs represented, or as the drives of adolescent peer culture, or in terms of the needs imposed by developmental tasks, the greater is our conviction that profound modifications of the school program are required to meet their needs. It does not suffice merely to take this sovereign purpose for granted and contend that it is so "broad and all-inclusive that it has little value as a statement of function." Serving the needs of early adolescence is the all-pervasive special purpose of the junior high school, and at the same time, is the source of most or all its other special purposes. Its near-inclusiveness, however, makes it imperative to move on from this formulation of purpose as a catchall and to identify its several aspects as corollaries.

SOME COROLLARY PURPOSES

By way of recapitulation, it may be said that among the main aspects of the preëminent special purpose of junior high school reorganization are differentiation, exploration, guidance, socialization, and integration. Socialization as a special purpose is underscored by the adolescent peer culture and certain of the developmental tasks. The only one of these corollary purposes which has not been emphasized by illustration in the foregoing exposition is integration, which calls for an overall unification of the adolescent's program as contrasted with the fragmentary program which has too long characterized the corresponding grades in the traditional organization, and even in some junior high schools. The spreading recognition of this purpose is to be seen in the reports of trends in most of the succeeding chapters. It is shown in the trends toward general courses and the core

²⁴ Elias Lieberman, in the *Bulletin of the National Association of Secondary School Principals*, XXXV (April, 1951), p. 151.

curriculum reported in Chapter IV, toward block-time arrangements and in the retreat from departmentalization reported in Chapter V, in the increasing tie-up of curriculum and extracurriculum described in Chapter VI, and in the developments in guidance and the home-room portrayed in Chapter VII.

It may be gratuitous to point out the relationship of these special purposes to the goals, or aims, of education, formulations of which were illustrated near the opening of the chapter. The special purposes are not aims in addition to the general purposes of education. Instead, they are purposes more or less distinctive of a unit or a level in the system, the achievement of which facilitates the attainment of the more general goals.

THE SENSE OF DISTINCTIVENESS

An issue has sometimes been raised concerning the "peculiarity," or distinctiveness, during the early years of the movement often claimed for these functions ascribed to junior high school reorganization. They were often designated as "peculiar functions" as if they applied (1) only to this particular span of grades, and (2) even to these grades in reorganized schools in contrast with corresponding grades in schools in the traditional (8-4) organization. Clearly, the only purpose, whatever may have formerly been claimed, peculiar to the *level* is that pertaining to the nature of the child during early adolescence. The others, like guidance or provision for individual differences, because they are corollary, also share in some degree in distinctiveness, but they are at the same time applicable to school levels above and below. This is not to say that the junior high school has not rendered an estimable service to all levels of education by being the leaven by means of which these other purposes have become popularized, and thus encouraged in application to other school levels.

The question of whether or not the all-pervasive purpose of recognizing the nature of youth during early adolescence, together with its corollary purposes, is peculiar to reorganized as

compared with unreorganized schools must have its answer in what schools of these two main patterns of organization can and do accomplish. Implications of some of the evidence in subsequent chapters are that, unfortunately, the unreorganized schools cannot hope to compete with reorganized schools in serving either the all-pervasive purpose or the corollary purposes.

CHAPTER III

Grade-Grouping for Reorganization

THE FEATURES OF REORGANIZATION

Review of the purposes of junior high school reorganization is logically followed by consideration of what have usually been referred to as its "features." These are nothing more than the modifications or arrangements introduced for achieving the functions of the reorganized school, such as the curriculum organization (formerly usually referred to as the "program of studies"); departmentalization or other plan of instructional assignment; the program of extra-class activities and organizations; the advisory, or guidance, program; and the program of provisions for individual differences. With the list of features should be included also the grade-grouping in reorganization, since different patterns of grade-grouping may achieve the purposes in varying degrees. Whether or not the pattern of grades in reorganization is included among the list of features, it has always seemed desirable to accord it prior or early consideration; trends in practice and thinking with regard to it will be the concern of this chapter. Subsequent chapters will deal with the trends in each of the remaining features that have been identified here.

At the outset of consideration of trends in the features of reorganization in this and succeeding chapters, it is well to emphasize the desirability of keeping clear the distinction between functions and features. In the early years of junior high school history

there was frequent reference to numerous "factors" or "items" of organization, these being a conglomeration of functions and features not distinguished from each other. Even an occasional acknowledged leader in the movement was unwittingly guilty of fostering the resulting confusion, which has not yet been fully dissipated, as the writer can attest by the fact that within the year he has been asked to indicate his views on an "opinionnaire" submitted by a candidate for the doctor's degree, in which certain features of reorganization were included among the functions. Progress in any area, educational or otherwise, will be hindered as long as means and ends remain indistinguishable from each other.

NOVEL PATTERNS—ACTUAL AND PROPOSED

Because certain facts bearing on grade-grouping for reorganization were presented while reporting on the growth and status of the movement in the first chapter, for further description before undertaking appraisal of the various grade-groupings, it remains chiefly to review a few novel patterns recently put into effect or proposed in educational literature.

Examination of recent writings discloses only a few proposals for grade-groupings differing notably from patterns recurrent in the picture of growth and status presented in Chapter I. A few articles describe or advocate a 7-5 pattern, that is, an elementary school of seven grades followed by a 5-year high school. A small number of these must have been in operation from the early years of reorganization. Additional systems, just how many is not known, have moved to this pattern, a minority of them from the 6-3-3 pattern with separate junior and senior high schools. The remainder are mainly in certain states of the South, formerly on the 7-4 plan, that have added, in various ways, a year to the 4-year high school and thus attained systems with twelve grades.

One writer, following experience in a 5-year school and after having listed some of the frequently mentioned objections to the 6-year school, stated that "90 percent of the valid objections to

the combined junior-senior high school are removed when the seventh grade is not included."¹ The objections mentioned were clustered around the association of immature with somewhat more mature youth. Another writer, discussing the problem of organization for the state of Washington, mentions a "feeling among administrators" favorable to an elementary school of seven grades and a consideration, in schools too small to extend the program beyond Grade 12, of the 7-5 plan.² Neither of these writers takes cognizance directly of the time of onset of puberty and other facts concerning early adolescence that lend support to the practice of including Grade 7 in the reorganized school.

A pattern of organization frequently advocated in the recent literature and now actually in operation in a number of systems is the 6-4-4 plan, applicable in systems being extended to include the two junior-college years. A digest of evidence giving grounds for preference for the lower 4-year secondary school unit as compared with the 3-year junior high school is presented below.

The most recent novel proposal appearing in educational literature is a 4-4-4-3 plan, which would include the kindergarten and the first three grades (ages 4-8) in the "primary school"; grades 4 through 7 (ages 9-13) in the "intermediate school"; grades 8 through 11 (ages 13-17) in the "high school"; and grades 12 through 14 (ages 18-20) in the "community college." The plan is admittedly nowhere in operation, being advocated as one deserving of experimentation. The arguments given in its support are for the most part plausible, although the article is so brief as to make possible presentation merely of the skeleton of a case for it. Among the considerations mustered for the proposed regrouping of grades at the secondary school level is the "difficulty . . . encountered under the 6-3-3 system when seventh-graders make a sudden shift from a one-teacher-grade

¹ L. P. Farris, "Compensating Values of a Five-Year School," *California Journal of Secondary Education*, XV (December, 1941), pp. 470-472.

² Thomas R. Cole, "What Grades Should Constitute the Junior High School?" *American School Board Journal*, CXII (February, 1946), p. 42.

relationship to a multi-teacher-departmental relationship in the junior high school" and the delay in "social acceleration" at this level when girls are in advance over boys in maturity. The author believes "it is far better to detain the girls, who mature somewhat earlier than boys during this period, than to advance the boys, who frequently are not ready for the junior high school seventh grade." Reasons given for the units at the other levels are of comparable merit and, in speaking of the plan as a whole, the author expresses the belief that it "retains the values of the older patterns, . . . is more efficient to administer than traditional schemes, and, most important . . . provides an organizational plan in consonance with homogeneous age groups and their needs, since each unit circles a common growth period. And the 4-year units have proven more economical to operate."³

OBJECTIVE APPRAISALS OF GRADE-GROUPINGS

By measured outcomes. The junior high school movement was well under way before efforts at comparative appraisal of reorganized and unreorganized schools, or of different grade-groupings in reorganized schools, were made and reported. To date no fully comprehensive investigation of measured outcomes of reorganized schools in comparison with traditionally organized schools or of the different patterns in reorganized schools has been made. The situation in this respect is similar to that in other areas of education and in this area, as in others, reliance must be placed on the cumulative inferences from numerous investigations limited as to aspects investigated or to individual school systems. By way of illustration, the conclusions from two representative inquiries into measured outcomes of reorganization will be reported here.

The first of these was made by Beatley.⁴ From the administra-

³ Frederick T. Shipp, "4-4-4-3: New Plan for School Organization," *School Executive*, LXXI (September, 1951), p. 62.

⁴ Bancroft Beatley, *Achievement in the Junior High School*, Harvard Studies in Education, Vol. XVIII, Cambridge, Mass., Harvard University Press, 1932.

tion of achievement tests in reorganized and unreorganized systems in New England, he found that gains made during the school year did not differ markedly. Greater gains by one group of schools in some subjects were offset by greater gains by the other group in other subjects, from which one might conclude that the gains in reorganized and unreorganized schools were roughly equal. However, analysis of the daily schedules of the schools made it clear that this equivalence was attained in the reorganized schools by devoting less time to the conventional subjects and devoting the remaining time to subjects other than those represented in the tests—such as the social studies, science, fine and practical arts, and the like. Besides, the reorganized schools gave more time to extra-class activities. Thus, the major conclusion is that the pupil in the reorganized school did no less well in the tool subjects at the same time that he was experiencing the greater enrichment afforded by a broader program.

The second investigation was made and reported by Smith⁵ and involved the schools of a single city system, that of Syracuse, New York. This study included two parts: one reporting the mean mental ages, intelligence quotients, and composite scores on the Stanford Advanced Examination of pupils in Grade 8 of the different types of school organization in the system; namely, the 3-year junior high school, junior high school divisions of 9-year schools (elementary and junior high school grades), junior high school divisions of 6-year schools, and conventional 8-grade schools. His conclusion from this part of the investigation was: "In this system, at any rate, the pupils of the junior high school organizations tended rather consistently to excel in the skills and knowledges measured by this battery of tests." The other part of the study involved the use of the Hughes Graphic Rating Scale for habits, attitudes, etc., on pupils of Syracuse Central High School, grouping the pupils according to the type of

⁵ Harry P. Smith, "The Relative Efficiency of the Junior High School vs The Conventional 8-Grade Type of School," *Journal of Educational Research* (December, 1935), pp. 276-280.

school organization from which they had come. Smith's inference is that in the significant attitudes and habits of industry, initiative, reliability, coöperation, and leadership, the junior high school type of school organization, "at least as it functions in Syracuse, excels . . . the conventional type of school." He admits the inconclusiveness of the results of the study, but asserts that "it is evident that junior high schools with their broad curricula, their extracurricular activities, and their pupil initiative can do just as efficient work in the formal subjects of the curriculum as the conventional schools and possibly better. . . . At the same time, there seems to be a more significant development as a result of the junior high school training of the great life habits and attitudes of initiative, reliability, coöperation and leadership."⁶

By taking stock of features. While cumulative evidence of such studies points to the superiority of junior high school reorganization, it has not answered the important question of which pattern of grade-grouping is preferable. It is conceivable that an inquiry of adequate scope involving measurement of outcomes and including representative schools of the different patterns would do so, but no large-scale investigation of this type has been undertaken. In the absence of such an inquiry, it is unfortunate that the findings of the reorganization project of the National Survey of Secondary Education were not more extensively publicized. This project undertook to throw light not only on the question of whether reorganized schools are better than unreorganized schools, but also on the question of which of the then current patterns of reorganization were preferable. The procedure devised by Spaulding and Frederick and followed in that extensive investigation involved identification of nine "features" of organization in large numbers of schools of the different patterns of organization. Measures of "comprehensiveness" and of "consistency" of organization were obtained for individual schools and for the groups of schools. The assump-

⁶ *Op. cit.*, p. 280.

tion in the procedure was that schools with the most comprehensive and consistent setup of features can best render service to youth.

The groups of schools represented in Spaulding and Frederick's comparison were the separate 3-year junior high schools, 3-year senior high schools, junior-senior high schools on a 3-3 basis, undivided 6-year schools, 2-year junior high schools with 4-year senior high schools, and the two highest elementary grades (7-8) and the 4-year high schools in systems on the 8-4 plan. The following paragraph summarizes the investigators' conclusions:

When schools of the various common types are rated in terms of comprehensiveness and consistency of their internal organizations, the undivided 6-year schools and the junior-senior high schools organized on a 6-3-3 basis stand out above all the other types. The separate 3-year junior and senior high schools seem to owe whatever advantage they obtain largely, though not entirely, to the size of their enrollments. Unreorganized schools prove superior in comprehensiveness of organization to the 2-year and 4-year reorganized schools; they are unsuccessful, however, in achieving a consistency of organization comparable to that of the reorganized schools.⁷

The writer recalls that, when this conclusion of the superiority in organization of the 3-3 and 6-year undivided schools over the separate junior and senior high schools was first reported, there was considerable remonstrance and resistance to it, particularly on the part of heads of the separate schools. Among others who questioned it were persons who had seen certain undivided 6-year schools in operation and had noted the meager provision of features sometimes accorded grades 7 and 8 in such schools; as if the pupils in these grades might be the stepchildren of the schools. The present writer can attest to this observation from first-hand contact in some schools, whereas in others he has noted

⁷ Francis T. Spaulding, O. I. Frederick, and Leonard V. Koos, *The Reorganization of Secondary Education*, National Survey of Secondary Education, Monograph No. 5. United States Office of Education Bulletin 1932, No. 17, Washington, D.C., p. 119.

a generous provision of features for pupils not only in senior high school but also in junior high school grades. The authors of one of the better recent textbooks on high school administration have indicated more than a suspicion in the same direction where they say, "Observations of the junior high school programs in some purportedly 6-year secondary schools . . . reveal a circumscribed program particularly at the seventh- and eighth-grade levels. Too often we have accepted the external organization as evidence of the fact, rather than the experiences provided for the pupil."⁸

It is no longer necessary to rely on observations of individuals or on conjecture to support the impression that the needs of pupils in early adolescence are being neglected in many 6-year schools, now that proof is available from a substantial investigation in such schools.⁹ The evidence was supplied on questionnaires by the principals of 371 6-year schools in Pennsylvania, West Virginia, Kentucky, Ohio, and Indiana. In tabulating the returns, the schools were grouped by size of enrollment as "small," "medium," and "large." Five "areas" of investigation were included, namely, organization of instruction, activities, assemblies, student government and school services, and housing. These may be considered as either corresponding to, or as phases of, what have heretofore in this chapter been referred to as "features." Illustrative findings significant in considering the merits of 6-year schools are the facts (1) that the median number of teachers the pupils normally have changes little from Grade 7 to Grade 12, and there is even some decrease in this number from the lowest to the highest grade in the medium and large schools, rather than the desirable reverse; (2) that the pupils in grades 7 and 8 are deprived, in comparison with those

⁸ Will French, J. Dan Hull, and B. L. Dodds, *American High School Administration: Policy and Practice*, New York, Rinehart & Co., Inc., 1951, pp. 109-110.

⁹ Carl F. Bonar and P. W. Hutson, "Recognition of the Variation of Maturity of Pupils in Six-Year High Schools," *Bulletin of the National Association of Secondary-School Principals*, XXXVIII (October, 1954), pp. 108-116.

in higher grades, of opportunity for experience in journalistic, public speaking, and dramatic activities, and are eligible to membership in a much smaller number of clubs; (3) that there is a steady increase from the lowest to the highest grade in the estimated extent of pupil participation in assembly programs, and that; (4) "differentiation of the pupils according to maturity is not well accomplished by the housing plans of the schools." The general conclusions from the study are that the practices of 6-year schools "show a relative lack of recognition of variation in maturity among the pupils" and that "the evidence presented also indicates that the lack of differentiation results in inadequate educational opportunity for the younger pupils."

Although the investigation did not include comparison with corresponding provisions in separate junior high schools, a good conjecture is that such a comparison would have found some advantage for the separate units. We are left to speculate over the reasons for the seeming divergence of such a conclusion from the finding in the National Survey of Secondary Education of the superiority in organization of the 6-year schools. Possible explanations are the difference in time of the two investigations; the limited aspects, or features investigated; the national representativeness of the earlier investigation as against the regional scope of the later one; the rapidly increasing number of 6-year schools, as seen in Chapter I; the fact that the National Survey study inquired more into these features for the school as a whole than for specific grade levels; or a combination of these and other factors.

Concluding comment in this report by Bonar and Hutson is deserving of note: "The principal who would realize that the 6-year school presents a problem in differentiation according to maturity, who would define the problem, and then do something about it, has only to read selections from the voluminous literature on the junior high school and visit a few favorably recognized junior high schools to make a first-hand study of their programs. They are schools especially adapted to the needs of

grades 7, 8, and 9. Pupils of the same grades in the 6-year school are just as much entitled to the kind of school life and opportunity we have for years been advocating for junior schools." One may add that proof that this kind of school life and opportunity *can* be provided in the 6-year schools is afforded in the fact that it has already been done in many schools of that pattern of organization.

SOME ADVANTAGES OF THE 6-YEAR SCHOOL

The advantages of the 6-year plan of school organization have been often restated. A recent recapitulation by the principal of a junior-senior high school is the source of the summary here.¹⁰ This principal classifies the advantages in economy of operation, in administration, and in educational opportunities. The economy emerges in many communities where there are not enough pupils to justify separate junior and senior high school buildings, or even a 4-year high school under the 8-4 plan. The single large building in such communities lends itself to an efficient type of plant construction, with less expenditure for repairs and maintenance. All regular classrooms are used fully and economy is possible in the common use by the two levels of "expensive rooms and equipment, library, home economics, industrial arts, music, art, visual aids, science laboratories, cafeteria, study rooms, and the gymnasium." He speaks of the administrative advantage of employing one principal-administrator, the better articulation of the two divisions, simplified schedule-building, and the "core for community spirit" provided by having one rather than two schools. Among the educational advantages are the integrated guidance program, the replacement of two adjustments by a single adjustment of the pupil to a "new" school, a wider range of extracurricular activities, and a wider array of subject choices. The only disadvantage mentioned is the "tendency of the pupils

¹⁰ Irvin F. Young, "What Are the Most Significant Functions of the Six-Year School?" *Bulletin of the National Association of Secondary School Principals*, XXXVI (March, 1952), pp. 304-311.

of the lower grades to take on an air of sophistication early in their high school life."

Many of the advantages accrue to 6-year or junior-senior schools in larger communities and many educators have advocated this pattern of grade-grouping irrespective of the size of the community.

THE 6-4-4 PLAN

Because the 6-4-4 plan of organization is one of relatively recent advent, objective appraisal had to wait until such a time as a considerable number of school systems were committed to it and operating on it. The present writer reported such an appraisal for the junior high school unit in the plan more than ten years prior to this writing.¹¹ A few years later he reported the outcomes of a large-scale objective comparison of the units at the junior-college level.¹² The comparison at the lower of the two levels involved the gathering of facts concerning certain features of internal organization in seventeen 4-year and twice this number of 3-year junior high schools. The investigation included visits to most of the 4-year schools represented.

The main conclusion drawn from the comparison is that the 4-year junior high school is a better unit than the 3-year school, which, in turn, holds an established superiority over corresponding grades of the older 8-4 pattern. The facts of practice disclosed a curriculum of greater enrichment and expanded possibilities in exploration in the 4-year schools. They showed a development in the extracurriculum of organizations and activities that capitalize the greater maturity of the pupils in Grade X, thereby affording more experience in leadership of, and participation in, affairs of social significance that comport with the needs of a democratic society. They found a schedule more in keeping with preferred theory and practice. They showed a trend toward

¹¹ Leonard V. Koos, "The Superiority of the Four-Year Junior High School," *School Review*, LI (September, 1943), pp. 397-407.

¹² Leonard V. Koos, *Integrating High School and College: The Six-Four-Four Plan at Work*, New York, Harper & Brothers, 1946.

a better-prepared teaching staff, a more nearly balanced representation of men and women, and a more nearly adequate administrative staff. They indicated improvement of the housing and facilities to accommodate the enriched program of instruction and activities. These elements of superiority had already emerged during the young lives of these new units before many teachers and administrators had become fully aware of possibilities.

While the organization at the junior college level is not a question of major concern in this monograph, it is nevertheless in place, because of its relationship to the problem of grade-grouping for junior high school reorganization, at least to touch on the main outcomes of the objective comparison at the higher level. The 4-year junior college was found superior in many ways to the 2-year units, either separately housed or housed in association with 3-year and 4-year high schools. Some of these aspects of superiority are summarized here. Analysis of the curriculum showed more progress toward a desirable general education and better articulation of the curriculums at high school and college levels. The student-personnel and guidance program was much more often unified and continuous over the two levels. The degree of democratization, as measured by the percent of Grade 12 students continuing into Grade 13 and by the proportions of students from lower socio-economic levels, was greater. The preparation of the staff teaching in grades 11-12, as measured by highest degrees held or periods of residence in graduate schools, and by the extent of preparation in subjects taught, was better. The 4-year units had more specialized facilities than other units of comparable enrollments. No factual inquiry has ever discredited these findings or established the superiority of the 2-year junior college, either as a separate or as an associated unit.

Notwithstanding the manifest superiority of the 6-4-4 plan, after a vigorous growth for a dozen years or so up to 1940, it has made no corresponding gains during the last decade. It may even have lost some ground, as concerns the numbers of systems

committed to it. The chief explanation lies in the fact that the junior college movement itself has been largely at a standstill because of the military draft and the high rate of employment, which have kept young people of junior college age out of school. Such defections from the 6-4-4 plan as there have been are hardly to be accounted for by its lack of merit, but by other causes, such as an obstructive district organization, inadequate public-relations programs, and others. When the dynamics of the junior college movement again become operative, we can be sure that the growth in numbers of the 6-4-4 plans will be resumed. This expectation is based on the dominance of preference for the plan of superintendents of school systems throughout the country in cities with 5000 or more population—a group of cities which would include the systems large enough to justify establishing and maintaining junior colleges.¹³ The proportion of these superintendents preferring this plan over any other for their systems was about two-fifths of all and larger than that for any other pattern.

THE CONCLUSION ALLOWS FOR DIVERSE PATTERNS

Approach to a conclusion concerning desirable grade-grouping for reorganization may be made by quoting a few final sentences from Jones's appraisal of the whole junior high school movement a decade ago. Said he: "The tendency . . . seems to be for a longer unit in the secondary school; either a six-year unit or two four-year units. . . . The separate junior high school is not adapted to the small high school and most of our high schools have an enrollment of 125 or less. Those considerations lead to the conclusion that in all probability the junior high school, while its contribution to educational reform has been great, will gradually pass from the picture as a separate school."¹⁴

¹³ Sebastian V. Martorana, "Superintendents View Plans of Grade Organization," *School Review*, LVIII (May, 1950), pp. 269-276.

¹⁴ Arthur J. Jones, "The Junior High School: Past, Present, and Future," *Bulletin of the National Association of Secondary School Principals*, XXVIII (March, 1944), p. 14.

A comment on Jones's conclusion concerning the likelihood of the passing of the separate 3-year junior unit is that it is, in considerable part, merely an academic question even in systems preferring and working out, as their prevailing type, 6-year secondary schools. This is because in systems of large school population, owing to the undesirability of having young adolescents travel long distances to attend school and the preference for school units of moderate size for youth of junior high school age, more schools will be needed for them than for youth at the senior high school level.

Mention of this single factor that would make for variation in grade-grouping within a school system is suggestive of still other factors that at times would counsel diversity, both within a given system and from system to system. A list of possible factors has been presented by Barnes at the time of reporting from a survey of patterns of organization in ninety-two cities with populations of 100,000 or more and following extensive quotation from Jones's appraisal of the whole junior high school movement.¹⁵ The survey is concluded with the assertion that the junior high school will continue existence but that there will be modifications from the predominant 6-3-3 plan. Barnes names several of these additional grade-groupings and then lists, among the "many local factors," enrollment, location and capacity of present buildings, financial ability of the local district, compulsory attendance laws, flexibility of the community and school system, proximity of colleges and institutions (in relationship to including junior college years), and local and state legal provisions.

While it is admitted that a variety of grade-groupings can serve the purposes of reorganization, certain desiderata emerge from objective and speculative evaluation, which should make for adequate reorganization. Three of these seem preëminent. (1) One is the requirement that the reorganized secondary school, whatever the pattern of grades, *reach down to the begin-*

¹⁵ Jarvis Barnes, "The Future of the Junior High School," *School Executive*, LXIV (February, 1945), pp. 43-45.

ning of adolescence, which is about the twelfth year of age, although boys are known to lag behind girls on this criterion. (2) The second requirement is that reorganization *span the early adolescent years*. This means that the grade-grouping should include 3-year or 4-year junior high schools or 6-year secondary schools on a 3-3 or undivided basis. This criterion discredits the 6-2-4 plan, although it must be admitted that something of reorganization can be accomplished under this arrangement, which is at least preferable to the 8-4 pattern. (3) The first and second requirements apply strictly to grade-grouping, that is, the external feature of reorganization. The third one applies to the internal organization and requires that, *whatever the grade-grouping, provisions be made to serve the needs of early adolescence*. There is no good reason why these provisions should differ in extent or nature in the different patterns. The trends in these provisions are reported in the next five chapters, which deal successively with the curriculum organization; the retreat from departmentalization; and the programs of extra-class activities, of guidance, and for differentiation.

CHAPTER IV

Organization of the Curriculum

EARLIER TRENDS IN THE JUNIOR HIGH SCHOOL CURRICULUM

The curriculum of the school is assumed to be its most important feature for service to those in attendance. This must be no less true of reorganized schools than of schools with the traditional grouping of grades, and it is therefore important to know what changes have been wrought in the curriculum organization, or the program of studies as it has been frequently called, through the reorganization here under review.

It was not to be expected that the curriculum suitable for junior high school grades would arrive full-blown at the inception of the movement, and there was considerable fumbling and floundering during the early stages of reorganization. With only a consciousness of the need of reform and without a spelling-out of the curriculum implications of the new school's purposes, in many situations the curriculum arrangements of the corresponding grades of the traditional organization were taken over bodily with only minor modifications. This meant that in grades 7 and 8 the first curriculums consisted typically of the usual array of elementary school subjects, such as reading, grammar, composition, spelling, penmanship, arithmetic, geography, American history, physiology and hygiene, and the like, and that in Grade 9 the curriculum was made up of the usual subjects for the first high school year, such as English, algebra, foreign language, and general science. Thus, there was the sudden shift between Grade 8 and Grade 9 from the piecemeal curriculum of the ele-

mentary school to the four-unit arrangement characteristic of the high school.

Even during the earlier years, however, there was awareness of the need of replacing this traditional offering by one with vertical integration and better adaptation to the needs of youth, and instances of efforts at improvement soon multiplied. These efforts are reflected in the conclusions from investigations made for the National Survey of Secondary Education, which analyzed the programs of studies in large numbers of junior high school situations. We may be sure that the changes found in these investigations were actual trends because they are based on practices in identical groups of schools and systems at different intervals, and not in one group of schools at one time and a different group of schools at a later time. The trends as here summarized are most of those emerging up to about 1930.

1. One of the most noticeable trends was the gain of "nonacademic" subjects, such as the fine and practical arts, commercial subjects, and physical education, at the expense of "academic" subjects. This trend involved signal enrichment of the offering. The one academic field to experience notable gains was that of the social studies.

2. A trend in harmony with extension of the offering in the social studies was the increased emphasis given to what the report of the National Survey called "social-integrative activities," that is, home-room activities, clubs, group-guidance activities, and the activities of the assembly or auditorium. These were found to be increasingly scheduled as parts of the regular school day and were given larger allotments of time. They will be dealt with in later chapters on the extra-class and guidance programs.

3. Largest increments in the *required* portions of the curriculum went to the social studies, physical education, and the social-integrative activities.

4. Considerable progress was being made toward a *vertically integrated* program, that is, a program that shows no sudden shift from Grade 8 to Grade 9.

5. One of the most pronounced and momentous trends in junior high school programs up to 1930 was the displacement of special-

ized and piecemeal courses by more general ones. In English this displacement was reflected in the rapid disappearance of courses with such names as "grammar," "composition," "reading," "spelling," and "penmanship" and the appearance in their place of courses listed simply as "English," or, at most, of courses in the two main phases, language and literature. In the social studies the displacement was shown in the dropping-out of many courses designated "geography," "United States history," and "community civics" and the use simply of the term "social studies." The substitution of the term must have meant, to be sure, widely varying degrees of fusion of the older courses represented. In mathematics, courses in arithmetic in grades 7 and 8 and algebra in Grade 9 were giving place to "general mathematics" in all three grades. Having much in common with the movement toward general courses in the more academic fields was the trend toward development of courses of more general make-up in home economics, industrial arts (in the "general shop"), commerce, and the fine arts.¹

These and other trends warrant the conclusion which was induced from the inquiries: that the junior high school was serving as a vehicle of curriculum innovation.

MORE RECENT TRENDS

The most significant curriculum trends in reorganized schools since 1930 are derived here not so much from the study of the junior high school itself as from a study of the incidence of one prominent salient of recent curriculum reform, namely, the core curriculum. It may be pointed out in advance of summarizing the evidence from the study that, in essence, the changes embodied in the core curriculum are virtually a continuation and extension, that is, an enhancement, of the trends toward vertical and horizontal integration that were already on the way by 1930 in junior high schools. In other words, the major trend in curriculum improvement in junior high schools and allied reorganizations at the same level has been a continuous, albeit not always uniform, movement of integration for over thirty years.

¹ Leonard V. Koos, "Trends in Secondary-School Programs of Studies," *School Review*, XLI (September, 1933), pp. 497-507.

For certain primary facts concerning the core curriculum we are indebted to a bulletin on the subject from the Office of Education.² The foreword to the report expresses the belief that the bulletin represents "the first specific attempt to provide a systematic picture of the status of the core curriculum in the country."³ In reporting the types of schools found to have a core program, this bulletin states frankly that it "is still confined largely to the junior high school grades and therefore is more often found in junior and undivided schools than in regular and senior high schools."⁴ This interpretation is fully borne out by the tabulation of grades in which the core is offered. In a total of 545 schools represented, 380 core programs, or almost 70 percent, were reported in Grade 7 (108 schools), Grade 8 (27), Grades 7-8 (126), Grades 7-9 (107), and Grades 7-10 (12). The three most frequent subject combinations, in a total of 1119, were English and social studies (813); English, social studies, and science (75); and English, social studies and mathematics (46). Many other combinations appeared less frequently.⁵ Touching on the extent of horizontal integration, the bulletin states: "It is probably safe to say that the schools represented run the gamut from a core in which there is a minimum of correlation of traditional subject matter, to that which disregards conventional subject-matter lines and is developed around centers of interest selected by pupils and teachers planning together."⁶

Time allotment to the cores was most often ten (five double) periods per week (67.8 percent of the schools), and in more than 90 percent of the schools it was ten to fifteen periods.

No report is extant concerning the prevalence of the core curriculum in the upper grades of 8-year elementary schools. The practice is known to be followed to some extent in them. To the

² Grace S. Wright, *Core Curriculum in Public High Schools: An Inquiry into Practices*, 1949, United States Office of Education Bulletin 1950, No. 5, Washington, D.C.

³ *Ibid.*, p. iv.

⁴ *Ibid.*, p. 6.

⁵ *Ibid.*, p. 13.

⁶ *Ibid.*, p. 4.

degree that this is so, credit should be reflected on junior high school reorganization, since the movement for horizontal integration of the curriculum was initiated there.

PROPORTIONATE USE OF THE THREE CURRICULUM STAGES

The early piecemeal curriculum, the general-courses program, and the core curriculum may be thought of as the three main stages in the dynamics of the junior high school curriculum. A substantial minority of the programs of studies submitted in response to this writer's request to heads of junior high schools reflected varying degrees of the core-curriculum pattern. The large majority submitted programs not appearing to reflect this pattern. In general, this majority may be divided into two main groups, with wide variations within the groups which, in many instances, overlap each other. One of these groups is mainly in the general-course, or second stage, made up chiefly of courses given the designations "English," "social studies," "mathematics," and the like, which were reported above as emerging rapidly in programs up to 1930 and as representing the first long step toward horizontal curriculum integration. The other group still adheres in considerable part in grades 7 and 8 to the piecemeal tradition and in Grade 9 still reflects the offering in the corresponding grade of the 4-year high school. The exact proportion of each of the groups in these first two stages would be difficult to determine because they tend, as stated, to merge into each other as progress is made away from the piecemeal program.

The investigation in the federal Office of Education previously cited found 15.8 percent of junior high schools as having core programs.⁷ The proportion in larger units is much greater than in smaller ones, as witnessed by the fact that more than four-fifths of the core programs in junior high schools were found in units enrolling over 500 pupils, with the remainder—fewer than a fifth—in schools with enrollments under 500.

For the sake of concreteness, a few illustrative programs of the early and intermediate stages, as submitted to the writer, are here

⁷ Grace S. Wright, *op. cit.*, p. 11.

reproduced or described. Illustrative of the piecemeal stage is that reported from a junior high school in a southern city, with course requirements and electives as follows. The numbers following the subjects refer to periods per week.

GRADE 7

Required

English, 5 periods
 Arithmetic, 5
 Geography, 5
 Science, 2
 Physical Education, 2
 Spelling
 Home Economics, 5
 Industrial Arts, 5

Electives

Bible, 1
 Orchestra
 Band

GRADE 8

Required

English, 5
 Arithmetic, 5
 American History, 5
 Science, 3
 Physical Education, 2
 Spelling
 Music, 1 or 2

Electives

Bible, 1
 Typing, 5
 Home Economics, 5
 Industrial Arts, 5
 Art, 5
 Music, 5
 Orchestra
 Band

GRADE 9

Required

English, 5
 Mathematics, 5
 Civics, 5
 Physical Education, 2
 Spelling

Electives

General Science, 5
 Typing, 5
 Home Economics, 5
 Industrial Arts, 5
 Art, 5
 Music, 5
 Latin, 5
 Orchestra, 3 or 5
 Band

It may be noted that this program is not strictly of the original piecemeal stage. For instance, English is listed as a general subject with only spelling fragmented out of it. Science, too, is listed under the general designation. If the program were of the "pure" piecemeal stage, English would be listed under such names as reading, literature, grammar, composition, and penmanship. Among the programs submitted, not one was strictly pristine, in the sense of being identical with elementary and high school curriculums of the period out of which the junior high school emerged. This is to say that all the curriculums submitted manifested some advance toward integration.

Illustrative of the general-course stage is the curriculum organization of junior high schools in a system in the Far West in which five periods per week in English and in health and physical education are prescribed for all pupils through all three grades; in social studies and mathematics, under those names, through grades 7 and 8; in home economics (for girls) and industrial

arts (for boys) in Grade 7; and in "Activities," "Guidance," and "Home-Room" in all three grades. Elective portions of the offering include two periods of science, art, music, home economics, industrial arts, or general language in Grade 8; and five periods of social studies, mathematics, science, art, music, home economics, industrial art, "junior business practice," general language, or foreign language (French, Spanish, or Latin) in Grade 9.

Illustrative of programs that may be regarded as at a status somewhere between the two that have just been presented is the one in operation in a junior high school in Pennsylvania. It is reproduced as published by the local school authorities.

GRADE 7

| | <i>Periods per Week</i> |
|--|-------------------------|
| Health and Physical Education | 3 |
| English | |
| Grammar, Composition, Spelling, Library | |
| and Penmanship | 5 |
| Reading and Literature | 2 |
| Social Studies | |
| History | 5 |
| Geography | 5 |
| Arithmetic | 5 |
| Fine Arts | |
| Drawing | 1 |
| Music | 1 |
| Practical Arts | |
| Homemaking } | |
| Shop } | 2 |
| Guidance | 1 |
| Home-room | 1 |
| School-Life Activities | 4 |
| Assembly, Student Government, Music, | |
| Dramatics, School and Community Welfare, | |
| School Paper, etc. | |

GRADE 8

| | |
|--|----------|
| Health | |
| Physical Education | 2 |
| English | |
| Grammar, Composition, Penmanship, Library | 5 |
| Reading and Literature | 2 |
| Social Studies | |
| History | 4 |
| Geography | 4 |
| Science and Health | 3 |
| Arithmetic | 5 |
| Fine Arts | |
| Drawing and Design | 1 |
| Music | 1 |
| Practical Arts | |
| Homemaking } Shop } | 2 |
| Guidance | 1 |
| Home-room | 1 |
| School-Life Activities | 4 |
| Assembly, Student Government, Music, Dramatics, School and Community Welfare, School Paper, etc. | |
| | <hr/> 35 |

GRADE 9

| | |
|--------------------------------|---|
| Health | |
| Physical Education | 2 |
| English (Library) | 5 |
| Social Studies | 4 |
| Algebra or General Mathematics | 5 |
| Science (General) and Health | 5 |
| Fine Arts | |
| Music | 1 |
| Art and Mechanical Drawing | 1 |
| Practical Arts | |
| Homemaking } Shop } | 2 |

GRADE 9—(*Continued*)

| | |
|--|----------|
| Guidance | 1 |
| Home-room | 1 |
| School-Life Activities | 4 |
| Assembly, Student Government, Music, Dramatics, School and Community Welfare, School Paper, etc. | |
| Electives | 4 |
| Latin, Fine Arts (Music or Art), Business Education, Homemaking, Shop | |
| | <hr/> 35 |

In comment on this program, it is pointed out that, while designations of some of the main subject divisions are general, the particularizations under them are suggestive of the traditional fragmentation.

Before leaving consideration of these programs from the systems in the Far West and in Pennsylvania, attention is directed to the scheduling in both of them of "Guidance," the "Home-room," and "Activities," a practice frequent in programs of the second stage. These aspects of the program come in for discussion in Chapters VI and VII.

THE CORE CURRICULUM

SCOPE OF TREATMENT

The latest stage in the development of the junior high school program, as stated, is the core curriculum. Because less is generally known through firsthand contacts about it than about the program in its earlier stages, treatment of it, while still brief, will be longer than has been allotted to the piecemeal and general-course programs. It will begin with a preface on proposals for curriculum reform, definition of the core curriculum, and identification of the types of core programs. It will then proceed to consideration of schedule arrangements; the problems that emerge as units of instruction; the "resource unit"; pupil-teacher

planning; activities and materials involved; and procedures in evaluation, which are presumed to be more or less peculiar to the core curriculum. The treatment will conclude by touching on the difficulties encountered in operating the core, and a summary of advantages and disadvantages.

PROPOSALS FOR CURRICULUM REFORM

The decade of the 1930's is known as a period of social discontent and ferment that eventuated in the emergence of a number of social proposals and improvements. The ferment was reflected in the educational world and, specifically, in an impulse for curriculum reorganization. Naturally, proposals for reorganization and reform emerged for the secondary school level, and especially for the junior high school, which was itself, relatively speaking, an innovation. The middle of this decade witnessed the initiation of the Eight-Year Study, operating mainly at the 4-year high school level and supplying a primary impetus to the core curriculum movement. Numerous proposals were made by individuals. It was to be expected that the widespread ferment would find expression in formulations of proposals by educational groups through reports of committees or commissions. At least one of these was national in scope and many others were on state-wide bases.

Illustrative of proposals by individuals is that made in 1936 by Gilchrist.⁸ After listing the areas in which the interests of boys and girls "cause them to seek experiences" (physical activities, communication, participation in group living, etc.), he contended that "the traditional subject-matter division of the curriculum, with its emphasis on departmental organization, cannot be justified." He asserted, "The junior high school of the future will provide a master teacher to guide students in their learning activities all of the time during their stay in school." He spoke of this teacher as an advisor to the pupil.

⁸ Robert S. Gilchrist, "A Functioning Junior High School," *Clearing House*, XI (September, 1936), pp. 36-39.

What may be regarded as an outcome of the ferment is the report of the Educational Policies Commission in 1944 on *Education for ALL American Youth*, which was summarized for the National Association of Secondary School Principals in *Planning for American Youth*.⁹ The program proposed extended over grades 7-14, but concern here is with the proposals for grades 7-9, which are referred to in the report as "early secondary school." For this level, the program proposed includes three periods daily in "Common Learnings," two periods daily in "Personal Interests," and one period for "Health and Physical Fitness." "Common Learnings" is described as "a continuous course in Social Living to foster growth in personal living and in civic competence. Guidance of individual students is a chief responsibility of Social Living teachers." The elaboration of "Personal Interests" is "exploration of personal abilities and individual interests; discovery of interests in art, music, science, languages, sports, crafts, home and family problems, and leisure activities." "Health and Physical Fitness" is indicated to include "games, sports, and other activities to promote physical fitness, together with the study of individual and community health."¹⁰

An "interpretation" of *Education for ALL American Youth* by Rice and Faunce for the junior high school is presented here in brief summary. A "tentative proposal," said they, would provide "that a group be scheduled together for the entire day in the seventh grade, for all but one period in the eighth grade, and for all but two periods in the ninth grade. The curriculums in such class groups would include all worth-while experiences which help to meet the common or general needs of youth of junior high school age." Continuity of significant learning experiences "might be established by scheduling one teacher to a given class for the major part of the time for the three years." This continuity would "open the door of opportunity for class-

⁹ *Planning for American Youth: An Education Program for Youth of Secondary School Age*, Washington, D.C., National Association of Secondary School Principals, 1944.

¹⁰ *Ibid.*, p. 47.

room guidance.”¹¹ It may be said in passing that inquiry finds few, if any, junior high schools that apply this interpretation in the aspect calling for such a large proportion of the school day in the core program.

NAMES, DEFINITION, AND TYPES

The designations by which the developments referred to as the core curriculum are various. Besides the term “core curriculum,” or, sometimes, simply the “core,” the terminology applied to core-type courses includes “general education,” “basic education,” “basic studies,” “social living,” and “unified studies.” With such diverse names, it is to be expected that there would be wide variation in the programs represented, especially during the period of early growth of the movement; likewise wide variation in the kinds of programs operating under any single designation.

Tyler, who has been in close touch with developments in the core curriculum, asserts that it “is most clearly distinguished from other recent innovations by five characteristics. As the term is commonly used, it refers to a course (1) which is devised to serve the needs of all high school students, (2) which deals with problems involving content from more than one subject, (3) which uses a daily block of time longer than one period, (4) which employs pupil-teacher planning, and (5) which provides opportunities for guidance and counseling.” He goes on to say that some educators use the terms “core curriculum” and “common-learning program” interchangeably, and that the latter term is usually applied to that part of the curriculum “which is devised to serve the common needs whether or not the program has any of the other four characteristics.”¹²

Another writer in this field, instead of setting up these specific criteria which a curriculum must meet to qualify as a core cur-

¹¹ Theodore D. Rice and Roland C. Faunce, “Education for All Junior High School Youth,” *Bulletin of the National Association of Secondary School Principals*, XXIX (April, 1945), pp. 40-45.

¹² Ralph W. Tyler, “The Core Curriculum,” *NEA Journal*, XLII (December, 1953), pp. 563-565.

riculum, after an investigation of curriculum organization in more than five hundred situations throughout the country, identifies four "types of core programs." In Type A, "each subject retains its identity in the core; that is, subjects combined in the core are correlated but not fused." In Type B, "subject lines are broken down"; those included "are fused into a unified whole around a central theme." In Type C, "subjects are brought in only as needed. The core consists of a number of broad pre-planned problems usually related to a central theme. Problems are based on predetermined areas of pupil needs, both immediate felt needs and needs as society sees them." In Type D, "subjects are brought in only as needed in C above. There are no predetermined problem areas to be studied" and "pupils and teacher are free to select problems upon which they wish to work." The first two are referred to by the author as "core-type but not true core." She reports that it is "fairly common" to find two or more types operating in a single school.¹³ The proportion of the schools indicating the use of the types is greatest for Type A and declines for each type to Type D, for which the proportion is much smaller than for the three others.

Most of the schools answering the question of whether they plan to change from the type they are now using replied that they do not. When a change is indicated, it is in the direction of progress toward a more advanced type of program.¹⁴

THE SCHEDULE IN CORE PROGRAMS

Because the facts of practice concerning block-time arrangements in the schedule for the core curriculum are reported elsewhere in this book, little more needs to be said concerning them here. It is apparent that recommendations in *Planning for American Youth* and by individual leaders in curriculum reform have been widely influential in schools committed to the core in

¹³ Grace S. Wright, *Core Curriculum Development: Problems and Practices*, United States Office of Education Bulletin 1952, No. 5, Washington, D.C., p. 8.

¹⁴ *Op. cit.*, p. 9.

inducing them to allot two to three periods daily to this portion of the junior high school pupil's programs. A development that has tended to extend the block is the frequent replacement of shorter basic periods in the school day by 50–60 minute periods. Numerous instances of block-time arrangements may be encountered in descriptions in print of individual core programs. For example, the principal of West Junior High School in Kansas City, Missouri, reports two and one-half periods for the common learnings in all three grades, with the "basic subjects of English, geography, United States history, and science in the area of common learnings in the seventh and eighth grades and English and civics in the ninth grade." During the other four and one-half periods of the school day the pupils are assigned to arithmetic, health and physical education, a fine art, a practical art, and lunch for half a period. The noncommon-learnings portion of the program in Grade 8 adds speech for one semester and allows a choice of music or art for the other semester. The pupils in Grade 9 "have more elective single-period subjects and personal-interest and prevocational courses—namely, algebra, general science, mathematics, physical education, art, music, band, speech, clothing, vocational foods, metals, drafting, woods, crafts, and electricity."¹⁵ In the Cedar City (Utah) Junior High School¹⁶ two hours are assigned to the "common learnings or core subjects" (language, arts, social studies, and citizenship), one hour to the "activity or exploratory hour," and the remaining periods in the day to the fields of mathematics and science, physical education and health, and other subjects.

The long period of the block-time arrangement is regarded as essential to core-curriculum programs, since it encourages, by allowing time for, substitution for the traditional recitation, or rote-learning situation, several advantageous components of a

¹⁵ Roscoe V. Cramer, "Common-Learnings Program in the Junior High School," *Bulletin of the National Association of Secondary School Principals*, XXXV (April, 1951), pp. 159, 161–162.

¹⁶ L. C. Miles, "The Adolescent Explorer Finds What He Needs," *NEA Journal*, XLII (December, 1953), p. 557.

desirable learning situation. Among these are reliance on pupil activity, the unit plan of instruction, a problem-solving approach, introduction of group and individual projects, and field trips.

ORGANIZATION BY UNITS AND PROBLEMS

Incorporated with the long-time trend from the piecemeal to the core curriculum, particularly with the true core as manifested in Types C and D in Wright's analysis, there has been a no less profound progress toward integration in the internal organization of courses and instruction. Over the full span of development this has been a transition from day-to-day and page-to-page "lesson" assignments in single textbooks devoted to individual subjects to large units in "problems" or "areas" drawing on two to several subject fields. The intervening stage of rapid introduction of unitary organization in individual or general subjects represented a notable advance over the lesson-assignment stage, and this procedure remains preferably applicable also to noncore portions of the program. We need not doubt that the practice of page-to-page assignments is still being followed to a degree in many schools, and even in schools with core programs of Types A or B. However, the unitary organization has made great inroads everywhere on the traditional procedure.

Consideration here of internal organization of core curriculums, for the sake of brevity, will be restricted to illustrative lists of true-core problems. One of these is a suggested statement of problems that has had appreciable influence on junior high school programs. It is one formulated by Alberty.¹⁷ The problems are grouped under four main headings as follows:

A. Immediate Personal-Social Problems.

Orientation to the School, Living in the Home, Making and Holding Friends, Sex Relationships.

¹⁷ Harold Alberty, *A Proposal for a Core Curriculum in Grades Seven, Eight, and Nine* (mimeographed), Columbus, Ohio, The Ohio State University School, 1945.

B. Immediate and Wider Community Problems.

Living in the Community, Community Agencies and Services, Community Recreation, Community Citizenship, Communication, Transportation, Beautifying the Community, The Air Age, How People in Other Lands Live, Our Latin American Neighbors.

C. Wider Socio-Economic Problems.

How People Make a Living, Community Industries, Science in Our Daily Lives, Earning Money and Budgeting an Allowance.

D. Personal Development Problems.

Life and Growth; Maintaining Good Health; How We Get Our Beliefs; Personal Planning; Personal Appearance and Grooming; Developing Intellectual, Aesthetic, and Practical Interests.

It is not to be assumed that the turns of expression here applied to these problems will have an immediate appeal to junior youth. In the school situation they will need to be restated to impress those youth with the reality and importance of the problems represented. Even a brief canvass will show that they have large areas of contact with interests and needs of adolescents, as, for instance, in their developmental tasks and the drives of their peer culture. An illustration of how the problems are formulated for the actual school situation is provided by names of the resource units developed for the junior high school grades of a county in Maryland, as reported by a curriculum supervisor. One must assume the guidance of skillful leadership by the individual teacher and further reformulation to assure an appreciation of reality on the part of pupils.

GRADE 7

1. Living in the Junior High School.
2. Exploring My Educational Opportunities.
3. Knowing Harford County.
4. The Finest Machine.

Keeping Physically Fit.

Preventing Accident and Disease.

GRADE 8

1. Relating Our Land and Resources to Our History.
2. Conservation of Our Natural Resources.
3. Finding Fellowship with Americans North and South.
4. Our Physical Environment Shaping Our Policy.

GRADE 9

1. Appreciating the Contributions of Other Cultures.
2. Our Shrinking World.
3. How Science and Technology Affect Our Lives.
4. Finding One's Place in the World of Work.¹⁸

THE RESOURCE UNIT

An indispensable help to the success of core curriculums, certainly of types C and D, is the "resource unit." Different writers have defined it variously but, nevertheless, with major elements of identity. Krug says that it is "simply a collection of suggested learning activities and materials organized around a given topic to be used as a basis for a teacher's preplanning."¹⁹ The curriculum supervisor in Harford County, Maryland, whose list of units was presented illustratively above, says "For us, a resource unit is a body of material in an area of living designed to meet common needs, organized to include philosophy, objectives, scope, activities and bibliography. It is not a learning unit, but rather a device for assisting in the preparation of the learning unit which pupils and teachers coöperatively develop."²⁰ Alberty defines it as follows: "A resource unit is a systematic and comprehensive survey, analysis, and organization of the possible resources (e.g., problems, issues, activities, bibliographies) which a teacher might utilize in planning, developing, and evaluating a learning unit. In other words, it is a reservoir out of which the teacher

¹⁸ Dorothy Mudd, *A Core Program Grows*, Bel Air, Maryland, Harford County Board of Education, 1949, pp. 23-24.

¹⁹ Edward A. Krug, *Curriculum Planning*, New York, Harper & Brothers, 1950, p. 160.

²⁰ *Op. cit.*, p. 21.

working coöperatively with students may draw helpful suggestions for developing a unit of work in the classroom."²¹

PUPIL-TEACHER PLANNING

According to Tyler, as quoted above, pupil-teacher planning is one of the distinguishing characteristics of the core curriculum. This is not to say that, before advent of the core curriculum, pupils were never consulted as to what would be studied or on what procedures or materials were to be used. Superior teaching has often, not to say always, involved use of it in some degree. However, the growth values (in initiative, responsibility, ability in problem solving, etc.) assumed for the core curriculum would be unattainable without it.

Examination of the descriptions of the types of core programs as made by Wright, as quoted above, suggests that the extent of pupil participation in planning would increase from Type A to Type D, although, no doubt, there must be exceptions to such a rule. Another way of putting this is to say that the nearer to the traditional pattern of organization, the more authoritarian the procedure. In some early writings on the core curriculum one might meet with advocacy almost of pupil domination, not merely pupil-teacher coöperation, in selection of problems, units, and activities. One senses in more recent discussions of the subject some sobering in attitude toward degree of pupil initiative permissible or desirable in planning. This may be reflected in the statement of one writer, who says, "[Student-teacher planning] means nothing more than the fact that many of the decisions which teachers ordinarily make by themselves might be shared with students on a group planning basis. But this term is frequently misunderstood. Many people identify student-teacher planning exclusively with student determination of content of instruction."²² Another writer, discussing the "experience unit,"

²¹ Harold Alberty, *Reorganization of the High School Curriculum*, rev. ed., New York, The Macmillan Company, 1953, p. 424.

²² Edward A. Krug, *op. cit.*, p. 200.

which, as he describes it, is remote from a mere "division of subject matter" and "grows out of the fundamental belief that the centralizing and organizing point of the unit must be the learner himself," directs attention to "the danger" in this type of unit that "the criteria for selecting the content of experience may get away from the teacher into the hands of the learner entirely and thus become a wandering mass of satellite activities."²³

In considering pupil participation in planning units and activities, it is worth recalling that investigation and experience have told us much about the characteristics, needs, and interests of young adolescents, so that, while pupil participation in planning is essential for appropriate pupil development, there can be much preplanning by a school staff.

ACTIVITIES AND MATERIALS

Mention has already been made of the wide variety of procedures and activities carried on in the core program, such as unit planning, the problem-solving approach, group and individual projects, and field trips. They involve a maximum of pupil activity. Mudd says of the word "activity" as used here that it "does not necessarily mean a project or pursuit which entails physical activity."²⁴ She explains that when we say that the core program "is pitched on an activity basis" it "means that we are working toward a program which is essentially a "doing" program—that is, one in which the pupils participate to the point of sharing a variety of planning, developing, culminating, and evaluating activities." One might add that, in a sense, "activity" in the core program is in contrast with *passivity* of the pupil in much traditional teaching procedure.

A core program with emphasis on pupil activity calls for a diverse array of materials of instruction. Reliance on a single textbook gives way to use of many books and other materials

²³ J. Paul Leonard, *Developing the Secondary School Curriculum*, rev. ed., New York, Rinehart & Co., Inc., 1953, p. 439.

²⁴ *Op. cit.*, pp. 41–42.

and much more recourse to the library, the arts and crafts, trips and excursions, and visual aids.

The range of places visited on field trips is illustrated in a list reported by a principal as having been shared in during a school year by one or more grades in his 3-year junior high school: a trip to the city market in the study of foods, a local art gallery, the city museum, post office, "light institute" of a local power and light company, telephone building, factories, police department, airport, weather bureau, county court, city council, city waterworks, city newspaper, television broadcasting station, automobile assembly plant, etc.²⁵

EVALUATION

An impression of the procedures in evaluation followed in core programs may be obtained through excerpts from Wright's section on this subject in the report of her investigation of these programs throughout the country. Under the heading of evaluation by the pupils, she says, in part:

Evaluation of growth of pupils in objectives set by core is done informally by the pupils as a part of the core unit. Usually evaluation takes the form of discussion by pupils and teachers of each of the goals or objectives which the class had drawn up at the beginning of the unit or at the beginning of the term to guide its progress. Sometimes it may be a written statement by the teacher. Occasionally it is a check list or rating scale prepared by the teacher for use by the pupils.

Evaluation may be both individual and group. "How well did the group carry out the activity which was its responsibility?" leads to thinking about the situation. "How well did I coöperate with others in my group?" calls for individual introspection.

In many classes pupils have learned to offer each other constructive suggestions for improvement and in turn to accept those sug-

²⁵ Roscoe V. Cramer, "Common-Learnings Program in the Junior High School," *Bulletin of the National Association of Secondary School Principals*, XXXV (April, 1951), pp. 165-166.

gestions from their peers, severe though they may be in the spirit in which they are given. . . .²⁶

Concerning evaluation by the teacher, Wright reports, "In his evaluation of individual pupil growth, the core teacher gathers information from many sources. Achievement test results are, of course, one source. Since the objectives of the core are so much broader than the acquisition of fundamental skills and prescribed subject-matter content, many other criteria must be taken into consideration. . . ."²⁷

As an aid to evaluation of group progress, Wright mentions the check list, which may be an in-service education device for use by the core teacher or an evaluative instrument for surveying group progress, or both.

Appraisal of group progress by the class is an educative experience for the class. It brings into focus the criteria, objectives, or goals which they had set for themselves, and gives them an opportunity to intellectualize and to become articulate about the purposes of core. It likewise furnishes the teacher valuable evaluative information.

The teacher's own general observation of class improvement is an important informal technique. Especially if the teacher keeps records of progress will he be able to note improvements in effectiveness of planning, in judgment used in handling social situations, in attitudes of acceptance of each of its members, and in use of democratic procedures.

HINDRANCES TO AN EFFECTIVE CORE PROGRAM

It is well-nigh inescapable that in a profound change like the attainment of the third stage of integration of the curriculum, the core program would encounter numerous hindrances to full effectiveness. These have been conveniently identified and classified by Wright as "problems." To avoid the danger of minimiz-

²⁶ Grace S. Wright, *Core Curriculum Development: Problems and Practices*, United States Office of Education Bulletin 1952, No. 5, Washington, D.C., p. 93.

²⁷ *Op. cit.*, pp. 94-95.

ing the task of operating a core program, we draw once more on her study. Her procedure was to have principals of the schools with core programs answer the question, "What are your chief problems in operating a core program or in furthering its continuous enrichment?" She reports that, of the 447 principals who replied to this item in her inquiry, more than three-fourths list at least two, and often three, four, or five problems. The areas under which she classified the problems will be named here in the order from greatest frequency downward.

Most frequently mentioned are problems related to "teachers of core." The main subgroup here is generalized as "lack of or difficulty in obtaining properly or adequately prepared teachers," while substantial numbers of principals reported the closely allied problems of "traditional attitude and emotional reaction against change" and "necessity for constant in-service training of teachers." Not far behind in frequency of mention are problems in the area of "materials and equipment," the main subcategories being "lack of suitable furniture and equipment, insufficient space, physical setup unsatisfactory, traditional classrooms," and "lack of adequate instructional material." Next in order are problems in "administrative arrangements," such as "lack of or insufficient teacher time for planning and preparation," "scheduling problems," "large classes, crowded conditions," and "finances" (money for materials or trips and increased cost per pupil in core classes). Prominent also are problems of "public relations" ("failure of parents and the public to understand or appreciate the core program"), of "curriculum and teaching" ("curriculum development: scope and sequence; problems of correlation between component parts; cutting across traditional lines; keeping subjects fused"), and of appropriate techniques of "evaluation."²⁸

The scope and frequent recurrence of the problems cited by principals bear witness to an onerous task in achieving this curriculum reorganization. Higher institutions are just beginning to

²⁸ *Op. cit.*, pp. 42-45.

provide preparation for teaching in the core program, so that the administrator interested in introducing and maintaining such a program has no alternative to instituting a plan of in-service training. He must likewise secure, mainly through increased budgetary allotments, the improvement of physical facilities and the instructional and library material essential to the new program. He must provide for the teachers in the core program more time for planning and preparation, arrange a suitable schedule, and, often, reduce the size of classes. Most of these administrative arrangements call for additional outlays, which are difficult and, in some instances, impossible to provide. He must also carry on a continuous program of public relations to secure community understanding and coöperation, all the while giving competent help to teachers in curriculum development and in procedures in evaluation. With such a bristling array of obstacles, it must be admitted that the rate of progress toward the integrated program, while seemingly slow to those who are impatient for reform, must be accounted as having been substantial, if not rapid.

For those who speculate over the length of time required to triumph over these hindrances, reference may be made to an estimate by Faunce and Bossing, who have observed core programs in action. They say, "It may take from three to five or even eight years to effect a complete reorientation of the secondary school program and organization. . . . At the secondary level, the traditional segmentation of the program organization into watertight compartmentalized subjects, specialized teachers, and fifty-minute class schedules, makes complete change-over a process of years."²⁹

All told, instituting and maintaining a core program shapes up as a major responsibility and a challenge to superior leadership. Facing them, an administrator whose school program is still in the second, or general-course stage, may prefer to make this

²⁹ Roland C. Faunce and Nelson L. Bossing, *Developing the Core Curriculum*, New York, Prentice-Hall, Inc., 1951, p. 230.

as effective as possible and not commit himself to development of the core. He may even rationalize the whole issue, and, because the core program seems unattainable, decry the movement. Administrators of schools which are still on the first or second stage will hardly need to be reminded that, even to make these programs as effective as possible, they face responsibilities in leadership analogous to those in schools committed to core programs. The differences are mainly those of degree.

APPRAISAL OF CORE PROGRAMS

When it comes to considering appraisal of the core curriculum in comparison with other stages of curriculum development, in distinction from evaluation within the core which was discussed above, it is to be admitted that the efforts at systematic objective inquiry have been few. Most of these efforts have been concerned with the 4-year or senior high school rather than the junior high school level. One that applied to the lower level showed that the basic skills can be adequately taught and the gain in learning measured in the core program.³⁰ This study did not throw light on the more complex problem of attainment of other values claimed for the core program.

The earliest of the appraisals of core curriculums at the upper level was that made in the Eight-Year Study in which several of the schools represented operated core programs. Tyler, who was in charge of evaluation in the study, in a recent restatement in brief summary of the outcomes, said,

The students in these core programs made somewhat greater progress, on the average, than matched students in subject courses in ability to interpret data, to apply principles in science and social studies, and to interpret literature; in breadth and maturity of reading interests; and in democratic attitudes. There were no significant differences in reading rate and comprehension, in computational skills, and in the mechanics of English expression. In college, the

³⁰ Arthur C. Kelley and Robert E. Beatty, "Here's Proof that Core Program Students Learn Basic Skills," *School Executive*, LXXII (February, 1953), pp. 54-55.

graduates of the core programs made somewhat better academic records, participated more, on the average, in extracurriculum activities and attained a larger proportion of leadership positions.³¹

More recent appraisals of core programs at the upper level have been less comprehensive than that in the Eight-Year Study. One of the most recent reports is that on the core program in the high school at Oak Ridge, Tennessee. This is the second report in print on the program in this school and it records the outcomes of an experiment involving matched pairs of students. At the conclusion of the report the authors say:

There is some implication from the results of this study and the previously reported Oak Ridge study that students in a core program learn basic skills with equal or improved competence. This study also suggests that our traditional teaching methods do not lead to much improvement in skills of critical inquiry, such as interpretation of data, evaluation of arguments, and recognition of assumptions or inferences as measured by the Watson-Glaser tests. On the other hand, the study does give factual evidence that the core approach to teaching is effective in teaching pupils how to think.³²

In view of the dearth of comprehensive appraisals of core programs, it is easy to agree with the authors, when they say in the concluding paragraph, "More research of this type in many different school systems concerned with evaluation of these many intangible learnings is vitally needed if advances are to be made in teaching methods and curriculum revision." Persons interested in the junior high school level, at which the large majority of core programs are going forward, should see to it that much of this additional research is carried on in grades 7, 8, and 9. However, they are justified, while awaiting the outcomes of new research, in the expectation that values in addition to achieving the basic skills similar or analogous to those reported to have

³¹ Ralph W. Tyler, "The Core Curriculum," *NEA Journal*, XLII (December, 1953), p. 564.

³² Bertis E. Capehart, Allen Hodges, and Robert Roth, "Evaluating the Core Curriculum: A Further Look," *School Review*, LXI (October, 1953), pp. 406-412.

been derived at the higher level in the Eight-Year Study and in Oak Ridge are attained or attainable through core programs at the lower level. Differences in degree or kind in the outcomes would be determined by the differences in maturity of the students at the two levels.

Lacking evidence from comprehensive investigations of outcomes, protagonists of the core program in the junior high school must rely for their confidence in its superiority on certain advantageous accompanying characteristics. What these are may be illustrated by drawing on the "favorable educational results" listed and elaborated by the principal of a junior high school in which a "common learnings program" had been in operation for some years: (1) A smaller number of pupils for each teacher of common learnings to understand; (2) Fewer pupils for each teacher to know; (3) Smaller gap between the elementary and junior high schools; (4) More opportunity for supervision and curriculum construction on school time; (5) More time and better school organization for guidance and adjustment; (6) Greater amount of group and work-type procedure within the classrooms; (7) More convenient to plan projects which concern the welfare of the pupils in the whole school; and (8) Wider use of community resources in the curriculum.³³ A canvass of other statements would yield several additions to this list.

VARIABLE PORTIONS OF THE CURRICULUM

PREVALENCE OF ELECTIVES

Reëxamination of the curriculums used in early sections of this chapter to exemplify the different stages of development of the junior high school program will find that all contain, in addition to required or core subjects or the core curriculum, variable portions referred to as "electives" or, in one instance,

³³ Roscoe V. Cramer, "Common Learnings Program in the Junior High School," *Bulletin of the National Association of Secondary School Principals*, XXXV (April, 1951), pp. 163-166.

the "activity or exploratory hour." These variable portions vary from school to school and from grade to grade within a given school, with a prevalent tendency to increase from few or no electives in Grade 7 to greater freedom of election with more variables in Grade 9.

These variables range through considerable variety, but in the main include the foreign languages, industrial arts, home economics, certain commercial subjects, and music and the other arts. Examination of a number of "programs of studies" will reveal several electives in addition to these. In some instances these are offerings included in most other schools among the constants, and in others they are offerings peculiar to an individual school or system and are not to be found in the program of any other school.

THE SHRINKAGE IN VARIABLES

The most apparent trend in respect to variable, or elective, portions of the curriculum is one of reducing them in number and in the proportion they are of the student's daily program. The trend has been more noticeable in grades 7 and 8 than in Grade 9. It was disclosed more than twenty years ago for the Survey of Secondary Education and was found to be more marked in Grade 7 than in Grade 8.³⁴ Inspection of the large number of programs of studies submitted recently on request by the writer and other contacts with schools support the belief that this trend has been continuous since then.

In some part the trend, especially during the earlier period, was desirable. It is known that in some systems the junior high school and, in consequence, its program took on the characteristics of a high school, and the program aped that of the older unit of that day, including its frequent practice of prescribing few subjects and giving the pupil wide choice of subjects in making up his

³⁴ A. K. Loomis and Edwin S. Lide, *The Program of Studies*, National Survey of Secondary Education, Monograph No. 19, United States Office of Education Bulletin 1932, No. 17, p. 17.

schedule. Experience taught the inappropriateness of such broad flexibility for youth of junior high school age and, meanwhile, a philosophy calling for more general education, more education common to all, emerged. The trend has been backed, also, by the lengthening period of schooling which permits postponement of specialization of which the broadly elective program is often an accompaniment.

To some extent the trend of shrinkage of variable portions of the program is more apparent than real, since it has in substantial degree been offset by the trend previously noted toward general, or composite, courses which usually afford opportunity for selection by pupils of activities *within* the courses. It has been offset further by the practice of pupil-teacher coöperation in planning the courses, as in the core curriculum.

THE URGENCY OF VARIABILITY

The examination of the large number of recent programs of junior high schools which was mentioned as having been made by this writer suggests that the shrinkage of variables has in some instances been carried too far. While variation in activities within courses is indispensable to a program suitable for junior youth, flexibility should go further and permit *some* leeway for choice of subjects to meet the special needs and interests of groups of pupils or of individuals. The proportion of the variables in pupils' programs may well increase from grade to grade in the 3-year span. Opportunity for variation by election of subjects should not begin later than Grade 8 and there is good reason for initiating it in moderate degree in Grade 7.

Justification for variable portions of pupils' programs is to be found in the purposes of exploration, guidance, and differentiation which were identified in Chapter II as corollary to the pre-eminent special purpose of junior high school education. These variable portions will aid in the mastery of certain of the adolescent's developmental tasks as listed in that chapter, bearing more closely, to be sure, on some of them than on others.

CHAPTER V

Retreat from Departmentalization

EARLY ENTHUSIASM FOR DEPARTMENTALIZATION

One of the most pronounced trends in internal organization of the junior high school is found in the retreat from departmentalization, that is, from specialization in which the teacher is responsible for instruction in a single subject only. During the early stages of the reorganization movement, it was one of the most highly regarded features of the junior high school and it would not be impossible to cite instances of schools in which it was almost the only feature of reorganization.

An illustration of the extent to which departmentalization was sometimes carried is provided in a study by Steinmetz¹ in the junior high schools of Chicago (all of them discontinued in 1933). She compiled the evidence concerning assignment of subjects to teachers during the second semester of 1931-32 of the twenty-seven junior units in operation in that year. The tabulation identified fourteen different subjects such as English, mathematics (general mathematics, arithmetic, and algebra), social science (including history, civics, citizenship, and geography), general science, art, music, Latin, French, Spanish, commercial subjects, household arts, shop, mechanical drawing, and physical education. The teachers included may be regarded as an approximate and representative half of all at that time teach-

¹ Kathryn E. Steinmetz, "Departmentalization in the Junior High Schools of Chicago," *School Review*, XL (December, 1932), pp. 760-771.

ing in the junior high schools of the city system. The results of the compilation are shown in Table 4, which finds more than

TABLE 4. Distribution of Teachers in Fourteen Junior High Schools in Chicago According to the Number of Subjects in Which They Were Giving Instruction^a

| Number of Subjects | Number of Teachers | Percent of Teachers |
|--------------------|--------------------|---------------------|
| One | 455 | 76.3 |
| Two | 120 | 20.1 |
| Three | 19 | 3.2 |
| Four | 2 | 0.4 |
| Total | 596 | 100.0 |

^a Adapted from Table III in Kathryn E. Steinmetz, "Departmentalization in the Junior High Schools of Chicago," *School Review*, XL (December, 1932), p. 765.

three-fourths of the teachers teaching one subject only, and the remainder—fewer than a fourth—teaching two to four subjects. In all probability, the degree of specialization was even greater than suggested by the table, because some teachers had assignments only in certain subjects and not in others in groups like mathematics and social science. A partially redeeming and compensating feature of the assignments was the fact that a full two-fifths of the teachers had assignments extending through two grades; almost a half had assignments in all three grades.

DOUBTS CONCERNING ITS DESIRABILITY

However, doubts were sometimes expressed, even during the earlier period, concerning the advisability of complete departmentalization, especially at the lower end of the junior high school. Inglis as long ago as 1918 emphasized the desirability of gradual transition toward departmentalization in order to facilitate adjustment of the pupil.² Briggs stated in the year 1920

² Alexander Inglis, *Principles of Secondary Education*, Boston, Houghton Mifflin Co., 1918, p. 278.

that "any bad effects of sudden departmentalization at the beginning of the ninth grade are likely to be worse if introduced earlier" and that "a sudden change to full departmental teaching at the beginning of the seventh grade would be a violation of the principle of articulation."³ The present writer also early called attention to "the better wisdom" of moving "gradually from the one-teacher regimen of preceding grades, inuring the pupil by degrees to the responsibilities and exigencies" involved.⁴

The remonstrances against complete departmentalization multiplied over the years; objections to it can be found in the literature throughout the period of junior high school development. In 1940, an educationist, while enumerating adjustments desirable in junior high schools of the day, said, "Departmentalization . . . is out of harmony with what we know about development. Junior youth do not possess the adjustment possibilities for quickly changing from the guidance of one person to the assignments of five, or from shifting from a unified emphasis to a specialized interest."⁵ By this time changes were being made within the schools, as instanced by the program in the junior high school at Lexington, Massachusetts, as reported by the principal.⁶ In his article of exposition of the plan in operation at the time, he urges that there had been "too much departmentalization," using the figure of children learning to swim in shallow water and then suddenly being ordered to dive in at the deep end of a large swimming pool. He refers to the "middle ground" in his school that provided for partial departmentalization. The article reproduces typical schedules for grades 7 and 8, which afford examples of block-time arrangements, with teachers in

³ Thomas H. Briggs, *The Junior High School*, Boston, Houghton Mifflin Co., 1920, p. 110.

⁴ Leonard V. Koos, *The Junior High School*, New York, Harcourt, Brace & Howe, 1920, p. 149.

⁵ J. Paul Leonard, "Frontiers in Junior High School Education," *Bulletin of the National Association of Secondary School Principals*, XXIV (February, 1940), pp. 112-119.

⁶ Merrill F. Norlin, "Accenting the 'Junior' in Junior High School," *School Executive*, LIX (May, 1940), pp. 10-11.

double periods responsible for two-subject combinations, such as mathematics and science, English and social studies, English and mathematics, and English and general language. Remaining portions of the schedule were made up of single-period subjects. In his comments on the plan, the author stressed the values in guidance and in correlation from this partial retreat from extreme departmentalization.

THE INFLUENCE OF BLOCK-TIME SCHEDULING AND THE CORE PROGRAM

AS REPORTED BY PRINCIPALS

The example just cited will serve to call to the reader's mind the marked trend away from complete departmentalization embodied in the trends toward the core program and block-time scheduling as reviewed in the preceding chapter. A study of core programs in the junior high schools of Washington, where such programs have been encouraged at the state level, is here drawn on to signalize the trend and the association of the core plan with the retreat from complete departmentalization, and to identify some of the problems involved. On account of encouragement at the state level, the extent of development may be assumed to be further along than was typical for the country at large.

The author of the study, Burnett, concludes that "the majority of junior high school administrators in the state of Washington are actively promoting a change from separate-subject departmentalization to core units covering large blocks of time."⁷ Of fifty-four responses to inquiries received, forty-six indicated a trend toward a core program, and the remaining eight schools were equally divided between those reporting a trend away from it and those "moving in neither direction." Thirty-eight of the schools had a definite block of time scheduled for Grade 7,

⁷ Lewie W. Burnett, "Core Programs in Washington State Junior High Schools," *School Review*, LIX (February, 1951), pp. 97-100.

thirty-one for Grade 8, and thirteen for Grade 9. Burnett reports a "current tendency in most of the schools to include three periods, or a half-day, for Grade 7, two periods for Grade 8, and straight departmentalization for Grade 9," although several principals expressed the intention of making the half-day core characteristic of all three grades as rapidly as feasible.

Burnett also reports the principals as "cautiously" referring to their programs as "block-time" rather than core programs. Few of the schools moving into a core-centered program had gone far enough to list such areas as "social living" in place of the conventional subjects. It is Burnett's observation that, to encourage teacher experimentation, some schools have permitted teachers to select their own subject areas as the starting point for this block of time and that, while the combination of social studies and language arts is the most typical, and science and health are often added in the half-day block, any combination is to be expected in schools in which the teachers decide on the combinations.

Among the reasons given by principals favoring the core program, as reported by Burnett, are that (1) it provides better opportunities for unit-teaching and problem-solving experiences; (2) it promotes better home-room guidance services; (3) it decreases the shuttling-around of students and thus results in greater security for the students; and (4) it insures giving attention to individual student problems, rather than "covering just subject-matter material." Although presented on behalf of the core curriculum, which is accompanied by block-time arrangements, it is plausible to expect that these advantages accrue to a degree from block-time arrangements alone. These same principals assert:

"The three great needs of junior high school teachers are an understanding of adolescents and the ability to work with them; the techniques of guidance and home-room leadership; and a balanced background of general education, with the ability to teach in several subject fields."

This statement of needs echoes the hindrance of inadequate teacher preparation for the core curriculum reviewed in the foregoing chapter on curriculum organization.

AS SEEN BY THE TEACHER

The foregoing digest of Burnett's study of departure from complete departmentalization through the introduction of core programs and block-time arrangements in Washington indicates how these are viewed by the administrators in charge. It is well also to know how they are seen by the teacher. To convey this view, we draw here by a composite of quotation and paraphrase on a picturesque and sprightly description and evaluation by a teacher who had had experience in such a program in the Frick Junior High School in Oakland, California. Writing about the situation confronting beginning seventh-grade pupils in the completely departmentalized school, this teacher says:

Each of their six or more new teachers need information about them. During the first day or two the students oblige by giving each teacher whatever personal data he considers essential. . . . The teachers think, "If only we could have smaller classes so that we could *know* each student better earlier in the term!" They start with the best intentions to get data from counselors, but the pressure of clerical work is great. After all, they can look up the reading ages, the health problems, and the data about behavior habits and personality next week, or the next. Just learning the names of the students in five classes averaging thirty-five to forty in each constitutes some sort of marathon. And work must get under way. The students become objects on an assembly line as the teachers become obsessed with the need to *get things done*. The individual fades into a blur of faces.

Consider what happens when one teacher has the same students in such closely related subjects as English and social studies under the double-period plan. This arrangement reduces the size of the classes for all practical purposes. The clerical work, the learning of names, the collection of personal data, and some sociometric grouping can be completed in about half the time required for single

classes. Whereas the teacher of five single classes has an average of 180 pupils per day, the teacher with two double periods and one single period, contacts about 105.⁸

The author goes on to say that, instead of "feeling undue compulsion to get work under way," the teacher can take time for pupil-teacher planning. "With student participation in planning lessons a spirit of permissiveness is encouraged and pupils gain more insight into the problem of evaluating their work." She points out that, if the English teacher also teaches social studies, special skills which are usually emphasized in English classes only "can be taught as a means of improving performance in social studies. The tools of learning are described and practiced as needed and the children accept the procedure as normal. Not only reading techniques, but better methods of speaking, listening, writing, and remembering can be learned and practiced as the need arises." She makes much of the flexibility of the double-period program, pointing out that in it a teacher can "capitalize on a sudden intense interest in either subject," coöperate more conveniently with other teachers in the use of audio-visual aids, give more individual help where remedial aid is indicated, and encourage leadership more easily because the leaders have larger blocks of time for carrying out their plans. She concludes by saying that "administrators and teachers want a learning climate characterized by a sense of stability, lack of tension, friendly helpfulness, and freedom to learn and do" and that, "if the double period contributes appreciably to this learning situation, then it should be used."

While the advantages of the core program and block-time scheduling as seen by the principals in Washington and by this teacher are not exactly identical, they have important areas of agreement. Both encourage the retreat from departmentalization at the junior high school level that has long been advocated and that is now well on its way.

⁸ Lucille Simney, "A Teacher Looks at the Double-Period Program," *California Journal of Secondary Education*, XXVII (March, 1952), pp. 146-147.

MULTIPLE-PERIOD PROGRAMS IN A MIDWESTERN STATE

The fact and the import of the retreat from departmentalization are reaffirmed by the outcomes of a recent investigation in the secondary schools of Wisconsin made and reported by Krug and associates.⁹ In this investigation block-time scheduling is referred to as "multiple-period programs." Such programs were found operative in 44 of the 531 junior and senior high schools of the state.¹⁰ Recency of the trend toward this plan of organization is seen in the school years during which the programs were started, as all but 3 were begun after 1943, 31 of them during the three school years 1948-51.¹¹ The numbers of different schools in which the multiple-period offerings were found for each grade were as follows: Grade 7, 27; Grade 8, 20; Grade 9, 11; Grade 10, 8; Grade 11, 8; and Grade 12, 3.¹² That the development has been chiefly, even if not exclusively, at the junior high school level may be noted in the count of 58 for grades 7-9, which is fully three-fourths of the total of 77 represented in this distribution. This grade-incidence of the developments justifies the inference that the findings of the study apply in the main to practices at the junior high school level.

By far the most frequent combination of periods and teachers in these multiple-period programs in Wisconsin is the double period with one teacher, although other arrangements, such as "students in two double periods, each with one teacher," "triple period with one teacher," and "four periods or more with one teacher" were reported.¹³ Most of the multiple-period classes were called simply by the names of the combined subjects, as "English-Social Studies" or "Science-Mathematics," and it is significant that English and the social studies, with latter called

⁹ Edward A. Krug, Clifford S. Liddle, and Quentin Schenk, *Multiple-Period Curricular Organization in Wisconsin Secondary Schools*, Bulletin of the School of Education, University of Wisconsin, 1952.

¹⁰ *Op. cit.*, p. 11.

¹¹ *Op. cit.*, p. 16.

¹² *Op. cit.*, compilation based on Table III, p. 13.

¹³ *Op. cit.*, p. 15.

either "Social Studies" or given some special designation like "World History," "United States History," or "Citizenship," enter into all but a small minority of the combinations. The name most often assigned to these classes when the usual names of the subjects are not used is "Core," although the investigators state that this term "seems open to serious question since there is much confusion on the meaning of this term within the profession as well as among the public."¹⁴

The reasons for starting multiple-period programs given by the interviewees in the Wisconsin schools were many and diverse, but the four most often reported were "to provide for better transition to junior high," "to provide teachers more time with fewer students and students more time with fewer teachers," "to provide for subject combination, correlation, or fusion," and "to help meet students' needs by better programs on personal problems, social development, etc." These four categories account for almost three-fourths of the reasons given.¹⁵ Inquiry concerning teaching procedures used in the classes found most frequent mention of "committee work" and "pupil-teacher planning" and responses made three times or oftener to the question on how the procedures differ from those used in other classes were: "more varied activities and use of a greater variety of instructional materials," "more school-community contacts (field trips, resource people, interviews, etc.)," "more stress on audio-visual materials," "more discussion," and "less formal."¹⁶

On the whole, block-scheduling (or the multiple-period program) must be assessed as a signal trend in junior high school education. This is not merely because of its increasing numerical extent, as reported both for the country generally in the foregoing chapter and in the review of recent developments in representative states like Washington and Wisconsin, but much more because it is a vehicle of improvement in curriculum, in instructional procedures, and in the guidance of youth.

¹⁴ *Op. cit.*, p. 14.

¹⁵ *Op. cit.*, Table X, p. 17.

¹⁶ *Op. cit.*, p. 20.

THE TREND IN ELEMENTARY SCHOOLS

The enthusiasm for specialization of teaching which came in with the junior high school also invaded the elementary school, especially the upper grades. It is of some significance that it is also somewhat on the wane there. The Research Division of the National Education Association has reported that, while in 1948 departmentalization was in use in one or more elementary schools in "a bare majority" (51 percent) of the city systems represented in its investigation, it was "on the way in" in 12 percent of this majority and "on the way out" in 35 percent.¹⁷

¹⁷ *Trends in City-School Organization*, 1938 to 1948. Research Bulletin of the National Education Association, Vol. XXVII, No. 1. Washington, D.C., Research Division of the National Education Association, 1949, p. 16.

CHAPTER VI

The Program of Extra-Class Activities

EARLY DEVELOPMENT OF THE PROGRAM

The trends in three additional features only, among several others often regarded as desirable in, or essential to, junior high school reorganization, are reviewed in this and the next two chapters. These are the trends in the program of extra-class activities, the guidance program, and the program for individual differences. Examination of both recent published literature and of the documents descriptive of practices submitted to the writer on request by administrators reaffirm the conviction that these three programs have been expanded and improved throughout the history of the reorganization movement.

Of these three features, the extra-class program was first to become prominent. As already reported in the chapter on curriculum organization, according to the National Survey of Secondary Education, in which the program was referred to as "social-integrative activities," it was undergoing rapid development up to 1930. Another project in the National Survey devoted exclusively to investigation of nonathletic extracurriculum activities found that in 1930 junior high schools supported a larger median number of such activities than any of the other types of school organization, senior, 6-year, or 4-year.¹ While for this particular comparison the size of the schools as measured by the

¹ William C. Reavis and George E. Van Dyke, *Nonathletic Extracurriculum Activities*, National Survey of Secondary Education, Monograph No. 26, United States Office of Education Bulletin, 1932, No. 17, Washington, D.C., Table 14, p. 20.

enrollment was not controlled, the evidence supports the belief that development of the extra-class program had reached substantial proportions by that date. As early as 1934, an investigator of club activities in about two hundred junior high schools was able to refer to them as "fully matured and well-organized educational enterprises" and to conclude that there was "every evidence that clubs have become an integral part of the educational program of the junior high school."²

It was the present writer's observation during his earlier contacts with junior high schools that the extracurriculum improved more rapidly than did the curriculum. Speculation over the explanation suggests that there was less resistance on the part of teachers and others to expansion of the extracurriculum than to change in the curriculum and that the extracurriculum had the encouragement of the social impulses of adolescence.

An additional factor that encouraged early prominence of the extra-class program in the junior high school must have been that the movement for reorganization came in after the extracurriculum in the secondary school had passed through the first stages toward acceptance. These first stages are known to have been (1) the pristine one of suppression, on the naïve assumption that such activities represent illegitimate encroachments on the time of students, time which should be devoted exclusively to their "studies"; and (2) a second one of toleration accompanied by control to prevent their operating to the detriment of youth and their education. This second stage recognized that the drive to engage in activities was irrepressible. The junior high school came on the scene during the third stage, that is, about the time that extensive values were being claimed for the extracurriculum, values that run the gamut of the aims and functions of education and are comparable to those ascribed to the curriculum. With these broad claims, it was only natural that extra-class activities were increasingly advocated and accepted as

² William T. Gruhn, "The Administration of Club Activities in the Junior High School," *Elementary School Journal*, XXXV (October, 1934), p. 114.

a vital part of the educational program on a par with the curriculum and, in the minds of many persons, a legitimate part of the curriculum itself. As Tompkins has aptly put it, "The very terminology which has been used to indicate these activities portrays their progress: extracurricular, extra-class, cocurriculum, core program, experience curriculum."³

RELATION TO THE CURRICULUM

The history of the increasing acceptance of the activities in the educational program is reflected in the three "patterns" which schools adopt in organizing them, as these patterns have been identified by Tompkins. They are, (1) "the activity period, which is intended to provide for most extra-class activities *within* the daily time schedule," (2) "the core program, which consolidates many of the extra-class activities with the class activities," and (3) "the before-school and after-school activities program, which provides for most of the extra-class activities *outside* of the regular school session." Elsewhere in his exposition, Tompkins refers to the third pattern as "out-of-session activities."⁴

The degree of increasing acceptance and integration of the activities in the educational program is obviously in the order from the out-of-session pattern, to the activity period, to the core program. As stated by Tompkins, the procedure adopted by a particular school reflects its philosophy in organizing the activities.⁵ The patterns are, however, not mutually exclusive, and individual schools follow combinations of the procedures. The most common pattern at the present time utilizes the activity period, which Tompkins found scheduled in almost two-thirds of the junior high schools and somewhat more than two-thirds of junior-senior and undivided high schools.⁶ This is about the

³ Ellsworth Tompkins, *The Activity Period in Public High Schools*, United States Office of Education Bulletin 1951, No. 19, Washington, D.C., p. 5.

⁴ *Op. cit.*, p. 1.

⁵ *Op. cit.*, p. 1.

⁶ *Op. cit.*, Table 3, p. 15.

same proportion as found for all public secondary schools, irrespective of grade-grouping. Tompkins says further, "The statistics show that most of the attempts to merge extra-class activities with the core program have occurred in the junior high school grades; only in few instances has the senior high school developed such procedure."⁷ This inference could have been made also from the fact, reported in the foregoing chapter on curriculum organization, that core programs have made greatest headway in junior high schools.

It is correct to assume that, because of the trend toward core programs in junior high schools, there is a trend in these grades, how large is not known, toward incorporating extra-class activities in the core. This trend is further evidence of achievement of the special purpose of junior high school reorganization of integrating the whole program, which began with piecemeal courses; advanced to general, or composite courses; has been moving toward the core arrangement; and now is consolidating extra-class activities with the core.

ADVANTAGES OF THE CORE-PROGRAM AND ACTIVITIES-PERIOD PATTERNS

The advantages of incorporating extra-class activities in the core program may in part be inferred from what has just been said. They are the advantages of the core program itself, which have been set down in Chapter IV and do not require recapitulation at this point. The advantages of the activity period, because this pattern is the one most frequently followed, whether alone or in combination with one or both the others, are deserving of mention. These may be set forth by quoting again from Tompkins, who summarizes them as follows:

The opportunity to participate in an activity of their choice is available to *all* pupils.

Provision is made for *all* teachers to contribute to the activity

⁷ *Op. cit.*, p. 4.

period through sponsorship of a group, guidance of homeroom pupils, faculty discussion, etc.

The activity period stresses the value of extra-class activities by giving them a status coequal with that of the curriculum.

Administration, faculty, and pupils assume joint responsibility for developing effective activities. A staff member not sponsoring a group is given an alternate, equitable assignment, so that the activity program enlists the responsibility of *all* the faculty rather than those willing ones who choose to participate.⁸

Awareness of such advantages must account for the prevalence of this pattern in the schools. From the standpoint of the advocates of consolidating the activities with the core program, the chief disadvantage of sole reliance on the activity period is that it fails to provide all desirable integration of class and extra-class activities.

ADMINISTERING AND SUPERVISING THE PROGRAM

OBJECTIVES OF THE ACTIVITIES

In administering and supervising the program of extra-class activities, it is essential to keep in mind the objectives they are to serve. It was stated above that the values claimed for them are as wide in scope as the aims and functions of education. To the extent that these claims are valid, the objectives are deducible from the aims and functions. However, special objectives, cast in terms of the activities, have been often formulated, and it is pertinent to cite one of these formulations by way of illustration. The set abstracted here is by McKown, for many years a leading specialist in the field.

As stated by McKown, the objectives of the extracurriculum are "to capitalize, for educational profit, important fundamental drives"; "to prepare the student for active life in a democracy"; "to make him increasingly self-directive"; "to teach social co-operation"; "to increase the interest of the student in the school";

⁸ *Op. cit.*, p. 3.

"to develop school morale"; and "to discover and develop special qualities and abilities."⁹ The acceptability of the objectives does not vary for the different patterns of organizing the activities.

The reader may be aided in appreciating the significance of such objectives at the junior high school level by checking them in his mind against the special purposes of junior high school reorganization. Some of them are near-equivalents of the corollary purposes of exploration, guidance, and differentiation, and, by being so, further the achievement of the preëminent purpose of recognizing the needs of adolescence. The only special purpose not clearly identified is integration, achievement of which is encouraged by the trend toward tie-up of extracurriculum with curriculum reported in the foregoing section. The objectives may be seen to make possible the utilization of the drives of the adolescent peer culture, especially as the clubs and other organizations, almost universally, involve activity in groups. A little speculation should convince that achievement of certain of the objectives will likewise contribute to the accomplishment of the developmental tasks of adolescence.

SCHEDULING THE ACTIVITIES

As the name indicates, and whether or not the plan is followed in combination with the out-of-session and/or the core-program pattern, the activity-period pattern calls for a period for various extra-class activities within the school day for each day of the school week. Usually, this period comes at the same time interval every day and ranges in length from 30 to 50 minutes, with preference, owing to the hindrances to continuity of activity in short periods, to the 40- to 50-minute period. Examination of schedules shows little or no predominance in the use for these activities of one period of the day over another. The scheduling includes assigning particular kinds of activities to given days. In the Enochs Junior High School of Jackson, Mis-

⁹ Harry C. McKown, *Extracurricular Activities*, New York, The Macmillan Company, 1952, pp. 13-17.

Mississippi, for instance, this period on Monday is used for "Chapel"; on Tuesday for home-room, with activities in guidance; on Wednesday for clubs; on Thursday, for home-room, with activities of the home-room organization; and on Friday, for assemblies. While there is variation from school to school to meet local conditions, a recurrent practice is to assign two days to the home-room, two days to clubs and allied activities and organizations, and the remaining day to the assembly.

DIRECTION OF THE ACTIVITIES

The accepted importance of the activities has prompted not only the assignment of time in the schedule for them but also the designation of functionaries for directing them. This takes place primarily in schools of good size, as the principal in smaller schools includes the task of administering and supervising the activities among his other responsibilities. Even in large schools direction is a part-time assignment. Designations of the functionary vary, among them being "director of activities" or "supervisor of activities." More often, the designation is that attached to the particular functionary's other responsibilities, as "dean of girls," "vice-principal," etc.

INITIATING THE PROGRAM

Owing to the acknowledged place of the activities in the junior high school's program, the problem of "starting from scratch" is seldom faced. The problem is much more often one of enlarging or reorienting it. For the school with negligible or feeble development of extra-class activities in which the intent is to shift from an out-of-session to an activity-period pattern, a helpful plan of development has been reported by one principal of what he refers to as "a small midwestern high school."¹⁰ The procedure should be just as applicable at the junior high school as at the 4-year high school level. The procedure as described refers

¹⁰ Glenn W. Durflinger, "Questionnaire Determines Clubs for the Year," *Clearing House*, XXIII (October, 1948), pp. 84-87.

to clubs only. It began with a request to faculty members to hand in a list of certain club activities and ten activities or interests about which would center the work of any club the teacher would be willing to sponsor during the year. From the cumulative list of these the questionnaire, a sort of personal-interest sheet was framed. This called for the student's expressing his liking, disliking, or indifference to specific activities which would determine the objectives of the clubs. The questionnaire was presented to the students at an assembly period and tabulation was made of preferences. From the results a committee of faculty and students selected the clubs which became part of the extra-class program for the year. The author of the article regards the procedure as a suitable one to be repeated every year.

THE ORGANIZATIONS AND ACTIVITIES

SCOPE AND VARIETY

As is generally known, the range in kinds and varieties of extra-class organizations and activities in any considerable number of secondary schools is very wide. Indicative of the scope and variety are several classifications of them that have been used in reporting inquiries in books and articles dealing with the activities. One that seems to be as useful now as when devised in 1932 and no less applicable to junior high school years alone than to the full vertical range of secondary education on which it was first used is that developed for the National Survey of Secondary Education by Reavis and Van Dyke.¹¹ The groups identified in this investigation are as follows:

- I. Student government, school service, and honorary organizations.
- II. Social, moral, leadership, and guidance clubs.
- III. Departmental clubs.
- IV. Publications and journalistic organizations.
- V. Dramatic clubs, literary societies, and forensic activities.

¹¹ William C. Reavis and George E. Van Dyke, *Non-Athletic Extracurriculum Activities*, United States Office of Education Bulletin, 1932, No. 17. Washington, D.C., 1933, pp. 75-84.

VI. Musical organizations.

VII. Special-interest clubs.

The only prominent group of extra-class activities not included in this classification is athletics which were omitted from this particular project because they were investigated in another special project of the National Survey.

Both the serviceability of such a classification and an illustration of the scope and variety of the organizations and activities may be seen by applying the grouping above to the list of clubs reported by the principal of the junior high school in Rome, New York. The organizations and activities, with the numbers of members, is shown in the list on the following page, which is in alphabetical arrangement.¹²

A check of the list against the Reavis-Van Dyke classification will find that, in addition to athletics (not in the Reavis-Van Dyke grouping), the organizations and activities in this junior high school have representation in all the groups. In his exposition of the program, the author reported that the enrollment of the school was "about 775 pupils." In commenting on the seemingly large number of participants in athletics, he explained that it results from participation by individuals in more than one branch of sport and that "the figure does not mean that 683 different pupils are participating at one time."

As stated above, the extra-class program of this junior high school is presented to illustrate the scope and variety of these activities. It is not presented because it is unusually extensive, as schools of this size could be identified with more organizations and activities in operation. Nor is it presented as an example to be followed by other junior high schools, since an oft-stated principle of administering the activities program is that it should be developed for the individual school and not in imitation of developments in some other school.

¹² Wallace Ludden, "How Extensive an Activities Program in the Junior High School?" *Bulletin of the National Association of Secondary School Principals*, XXXVI (March, 1952), p. 260.

Junior High School Trends

| <i>Clubs</i> | <i>Number of Members</i> |
|--------------------------|------------------------------|
| Athletic Participation | 683 |
| Audio | 30 |
| Bowling (Thursday) | 39 |
| Bowling (Tuesday) | 70 |
| Boys' Cooking | 16 |
| Dancing | 80 |
| Dramatics | 45 |
| Fishing | 35 |
| Glee Club | 118 |
| Gym Leaders | 30 |
| Home-room Officers | 120 |
| Knitting | 20 |
| Library | 12 |
| Miscellaneous Committees | 55 |
| Outside Traffic | 16 |
| Projection | 80 |
| Radio | 23 |
| Red Cross Council | 24 |
| Reporters Club | 45 |
| Rifle | 16 |
| Student Council | 30 |
| Swimming (Boys) | 20 |
| Swimming (Girls) | 13 |
| Traffic | 30 |

THE STUDENT COUNCIL

It is out of the question in a brief monograph to deal at length with the numerous specific organizations and activities in any representative extra-class program. The literature on extra-class activities is now extensive and the interested reader should have little difficulty in finding it in any good educational library. Certain useful references are included in the bibliography following Chapter IX. Individual treatment at this point will be accorded to three organizations and activities only, namely, the student council in the organization of students, the assembly, and ath-

letics. The first two of these should be considered at least briefly because in important ways they can be the focus of the extra-class program; and the third, because interscholastic athletics at the junior high school level are just now in controversy. Consideration of the home-room, which is often a vehicle of extra-class activities, is deferred to the chapter on the guidance program.

Experience with student body organizations and with the student councils that are almost a universal feature of these organizations has encouraged frequent formulation of what may be referred to as "principles" to be followed in dealing with them and encouraging their participation in school control. An illustrative formulation is that by the principal of a junior high school in Los Angeles, who refers to these principles as "certain basic factors." This formulation urges that (1) "a student governing body should be representative" so that every student through his representative has a voice in making decisions pertaining to student activities; (2) "a student governing body should be a governing body in fact—not in fiction," because "there is nothing which disillusion youth more quickly than to be given a pseudo problem to solve"; (3) "a student governing body should have its area of responsibility determined" so that the area is distinguished from the areas for which teachers and administrators are responsible; (4) "a student governing body should be dynamic" through continuous evaluation, deletion from, and addition to its structure. This principal is convinced that the final solution of a problem is of less importance than the learnings that take place while the problem is being solved. These learnings are in the direction of "making democracy work" and in line with the basic purpose of such organizations, which is training for citizenship.¹³

There was a time in the earlier history of student councils

¹³ Beatrice N. Baxter, "Student Body Organizations and Functioning," *Bulletin of the National Association of Secondary School Principals*, XXXV (April, 1951), pp. 117-119.

when many school people were doubtful that enough significant problems could be found to keep these organizations vital. Experience has not only yielded principles of operation like those just cited; it has also convinced teachers and school heads that there is no lack of meritorious projects to keep the councils fully and significantly engaged and to utilize the eagerness, ability, and nascent idealism of the young adolescent. As long ago as 1944, a committee of the National Association of Secondary School Principals, of which Edgar G. Johnston was chairman, compiled, from more than a hundred secondary schools, a list of about one hundred fifty projects in which student councils engaged. The projects were classified under the headings of "attitudes, awards, coöperation with other councils, financing projects, long-term planning, public relations, school services, social activities, student information, and welfare."¹⁴ The list is too long to reproduce here and it must suffice to name some projects classified under "attitudes": secure students' suggestions for changes, conduct an attitude campaign, conduct accident prevention campaign, and plan and promote a "better manners" campaign.

Because of the frequency of "better manners" campaigns, it would be appropriate to refer to this project as at least one of the minor trends in the junior high school. Readers desirous of learning how these are conducted will find a description in an article by McKee reporting on such a campaign, in which the student council coöperated, in the Amos Hiatt Junior High School of Des Moines, Iowa.¹⁵

ASSEMBLIES

Another trend within the extra-class program is toward a closer relationship between (1) student organizations and ac-

¹⁴ Edgar G. Johnston (Chairman), "The Student Council in the Secondary School," *Bulletin of the National Association of Secondary School Principals*, XXVIII (October, 1944), Chapter X, pp. 162-179.

¹⁵ Mabel F. McKee, "Experiment in Guidance in the Field of Social Courtesies," *School Review*, LIV (January, 1946), pp. 39-42.

tivities, and (2) the assembly programs. Before this trend got under way, events in the assembly period, typically scheduled once each week, bore little relationship to what was going forward in the activities periods. They were often speeches or other programs by personnel outside the school. These assembly periods are being increasingly used for events growing out of activities of the clubs and other organizations of the school and developed during the activity periods assigned to them. The assembly period also often affords an outlet for projects being fostered by the home-room or the student council. The reader interested in a report of an illustrative dependence of the assembly on extra-class activities will find it in a brief exposition by Miner.¹⁶ This trend toward a tie-up of the activities of clubs and other organizations is a further detail of progress toward achieving the junior high school's purpose of integration.

ATHLETICS IN JUNIOR HIGH SCHOOL GRADES

Still another trend, at least until recently, within the extra-class program in the junior high school appears to be in the spread of interscholastic athletics. The trend has affected also corresponding grades of 8-year elementary schools and has even reached below this level. Certain specialists in health and physical education, aware of the dangers to young participants, have objected in public address and in writing to the trend, and the question of the desirability of interscholastic athletics has become the subject of heated controversy.

Advocates within the schools of interscholastics at this grade level have assumed values in participation similar to those claimed for them at higher levels. They have been abetted by sports writers and others who profit professionally and financially from the increase of public athletic spectacles. Coaches in schools at higher levels have often been favorable because of the expectation that interscholastic competition develops in the

¹⁶ Melissa Miner, "Parade of Extracurricular Activities Assembly," *School Activities*, XVIII (May, 1947), pp. 297-298.

participants the skills required in senior high school and college. The advocacy found fertile soil in the intense competitive spirit of the young participants and in the misguided enthusiasm of fond parents.

A professor of physical education at the University of Michigan recently summed up the "case against" interscholastic athletic contests by contending that they are physiologically, psychologically, sociologically, and educationally undesirable. He says that the growing boy is apt to be physiologically harmed. "He is growing rapidly, but his heart and powers of endurance have not yet caught up with his increase in size and weight. . . . Under excessive demands of highly organized competition, he will have to continue beyond the natural limits of his endurance." In objection on psychological grounds, Mitchell says that "the boy of eleven to fifteen years is not yet ready to assume the emotional stress of championship competition" and that before he is ready for the "big time," he should go through the stages of playing with friends for the fun of playing, then with "pickup challenge groups," and then with intramural teams having few onlookers. Objections on sociological grounds are to regimenting youth in their early teens and to having young pupils accompany the teams to contests. As an economic objection he complains about the expense of equipment which supporting interscholastics takes away from others who should be participating in programs of sports. Under educational objections, Mitchell refers to the exploratory purpose of the junior high school: the boy should be introduced to a number of sports instead of turned too early into a specialist. He concludes his case by contending that the "present junior high school trend" has not been proved to pay off in winning senior high school teams.¹⁷

Among recent writings on the subject is the report by the directing supervisor of the Bureau of Physical Welfare in the schools of Cleveland (Ohio) on comparative measures of

¹⁷ E. D. Mitchell, "The Case Against Interscholastic Athletics in Junior High School," *Education Digest*, XVII (March, 1952), pp. 46-48.

growth in height, weight, and lung capacity over a two-year span of boys engaging in competitive athletics compared with boys taking gymnasium, and boys not taking gymnasium. The changes measured yielded implications unfavorable to the boys in athletic competition. In appraising the outcomes, the author says:

It is not the item of physical exercise in amount or kind that causes the difference. . . . It is the matter of the psychological concomitants accompanying the program of competitive athletics—and which are almost lacking in the regular program of physical education—which has to do with the difference. . . . In other words, if boys could compete with one another without the pressure put upon them to win for the school, without the nervous excitement imposed on them by playing before audiences, and without the setting up of an artificial situation, the competitions would be good.”¹⁸

In commenting on evidence of the detrimental effect of participation in interscholastic athletic competition, a doctor of medicine and a doctor of philosophy have joined in saying, in an editorial in *Today's Health*, a publication of the American Medical Association, “Many parents reject the facts derived from exhaustive study of children in the first nine grades. Is it because they prefer to bask in the reflected glory heaped upon immature children by an unthinking public which demands the last ounce of effort to win for good old X Junior High School? . . . The general public would do well to accept the professional advice of physicians and educators and allow these youngsters to grow up without the unnecessary emotional and physical strain of playing gladiator in the physical arena.”¹⁹

The latest pronouncement on the subject of athletics at the junior high school level is from the Educational Policies Com-

¹⁸ Floyd A. Rowe, “Should the Junior High School Have Competitive Athletics?” *School Activities*, XXII (November and December, 1950), pp. 96–99, 129–130, 142–143.

¹⁹ D. A. Dukelow and Fred V. Hein, “Junior High School Athletic Leagues,” *Today's Health*, XXIX (November, 1951), p. 13.

mission of the National Education Association.²⁰ The position is taken in a report concerning athletics for all precollegiate levels. It states that boys and girls in junior high school need a program of athletics "different from that provided for either elementary school children or senior high school youth. It must be suited to the needs of children who are undergoing rapid physical growth, who have special need for improving body coordination, who seek to take part in an increasing number of activities, who have a strong desire for group acceptance, and who are beginning to be interested in the opposite sex."²¹ The report would proscribe in particular, as kinds of sports, boxing, ice hockey, and tackle football.²² It condemns also, for this level, interscholastic athletic contests, except that it approves "sports days and invitational informal games" with nearby schools "as an occasional extension of the intramural program to extramural dimensions." The athletic program in junior high school should consist of the instruction in sports taking place in required classes in physical education and in after-school and noon-hour intramural games. It urges that the intramural program should offer many options, as "young adolescents are especially eager to explore many possibilities for future specialization."²³ The reasons given for opposition to "school teams" and interscholastics in junior high schools are similar to those quoted above from other writers.

The report of the Commission also touches on the program of athletics for junior high school girls as follows:

While the intramural program should include many opportunities for co-recreation, as games in which both sexes participate are commonly called, a much larger share of the program than . . . in the case of the elementary school should be arranged for each sex separately. The danger, as the programs become more separated, is

²⁰ *School Athletics: Problems and Policies*, Washington, D.C., National Education Association, 1954.

²¹ *Op. cit.*, p. 33.

²² *Op. cit.*, p. 34.

²³ *Op. cit.*, p. 35.

that boys' activities will be emphasized and the girls will be neglected. Those who plan programs for junior high schools may need to be reminded that "athletics for all" means all pupils, not just all boys.

Most junior high school girls are growing rapidly. At this age, distinctly feminine interests are becoming manifest. Although girls want to run, jump, do acrobatics, dance, and participate in team and individual sports, they tire easily and should not be stimulated to engage in prolonged strenuous activity. Leaders with understanding and patience can help each girl select activities that will give her satisfaction, help her maintain fitness, and gain poise.²⁴

²⁴ *Op. cit.*, p. 37.

CHAPTER VII

The Program of Guidance

BEGINNINGS AND TRENDS

The program of guidance is a feature of junior high school reorganization stemming directly from one of the institution's prominent and inherent purposes. In part it also arises from the purpose of exploration which is often associated with guidance and, with some justification, may be considered a phase of guidance. Although there were beginnings in many of the earliest junior units, this feature lagged in its development behind the extra-class program, probably because of confusion over the concept of guidance and because of lack of understanding of what makes up a suitable guidance program. Recent years have seen a marked enlargement in the personnel for guidance and in the scope of guidance activities.

The recent rapid general development of the guidance program has been accompanied by at least two special trends deserving of comment, one of these relating to vocational guidance and the other to the home-room and the "social-living" core as avenues of guidance. The early emphasis on guidance concerning occupations has eased off in considerable degree in junior high school grades, owing largely to the longer periods of school attendance which permit postponement of emphasis on the selection of one's specific lifework to the senior high school and

even to the early collegiate level. Many junior high schools, however, have quite properly retained some study of occupations in general aspects, both for encouraging a long look forward toward pupils' subsequent careers and for its value in social understanding. The trend toward guidance in the home-room has been so pronounced as to deserve consideration in a separate section of this chapter.

GUIDANCE IN RELATION TO PROBLEMS

If students were not faced with problems, either identified by themselves or by other persons such as teachers or parents, there would be no need for guidance. The solution or amelioration of problems is the objective of guidance. On this account it is important to know what students' problems are. Numerous studies of these problems have been made, some of them with the cooperation of youth and with the aid of check lists or questionnaires, which are followed by classification and tabulation for frequency of recurrence. Outcomes of such inquiries are helpful in obtaining a general knowledge of the problem areas and specific problems of young adolescents.

The following categories exemplify the areas found in such studies. Following each area are illustrations of recurrent problems: (1) physical development and health—illness, physical unattractiveness, lack of athletic skill, physical defects in fact or suspected, awkwardness; (2) home and family relationships—broken homes, arduous home duties, friction with siblings, domineering parents; (3) recreation—lack of interest in sports or in reading, limited resources in recreation; (4) personality problems—shyness, aggressiveness, feelings of inferiority, lack of self-confidence; (5) church and religion—doubts, conversion, over-religious parents; (6) school—study habits, dislike of subjects or teachers, inadequacies in reading skills, fear of failure, choice of electives or senior high school curriculum; and (7) social and economic—manners and discourtesy, racial dislikes, boy-girl relationships, inadequate spending money.

AN ILLUSTRATIVE GUIDANCE PROGRAM

Before proceeding to consideration of elements of the program of guidance, it should prove helpful to describe a program that includes most or all of them. This description will be made mostly by paraphrase of and partly by quotations from an article by the principal of the school.¹ The school is the Colin Kelly Junior High School in Eugene, Oregon, with an enrollment of about five hundred pupils. In all likelihood, changes have been made since the article was published.

The personnel for guidance includes the principal who is in direct charge of the whole program; a vice-principal who, besides being responsible for the attendance procedure and pupil accounting and in this connection is able to secure information of the students' home and personal problems, works closely with the attendance officer for the system and the school nurse, serves as boys' adviser, handling cases of boys referred by teachers for special counseling; a girls' adviser (who also serves as librarian); core teachers who "are the center of the guidance organization"; and other classroom teachers. "All teachers have general responsibilities in making a contribution to the guidance program," but "the physical education and health teachers carry the responsibility of health guidance and social hygiene education"; the homemaking teacher "makes a special contribution to the guidance program in teaching units on home and family relations"; and the school nurse works closely on health problems with the boys' and girls' advisers, the principal, and the physical education teachers. In addition, the exposition mentions certain services by specialists, namely, a reading specialist (one of the social-living teachers); a teacher of speech, on a part-time basis, for students with speech disabilities; and a school psychologist for the system, who is available to study and make recommenda-

¹ Lester M. Beals, "The Guidance Program in Colin Kelly Junior High School," *Bulletin of the National Association of Secondary School Principals*, XXXIV (January, 1950), pp. 248-257.

tions for special cases and who, twice a year, conducts a child guidance clinic in which psychiatrists from the state's medical school consult with parents, teachers, and children concerning referred problems.

The core is termed "social living" and, "from a curricular standpoint" is "a fusion of language arts and social studies with some science concepts." Emphasis in the core is on the student and his basic needs. In grades 7 and 8, the core program consists of three periods of 50 minutes each, and in Grade 9, of two periods. The activities of the home-room take place in the social living classes. Two weeks in the fall are devoted to a program of orientation, with study based on a student handbook. The orientation program begins in the spring when the principal of the junior high school and student leaders "discuss with prospective students the junior high school program and register them." The core teachers keep the cumulative record folders which originate in the first grade of the system. In some cases, the teachers have progressed with their classes, although this practice is not universal. In addition to being responsible for group-guidance activities, the core teachers carry on individual counseling in educational, vocational, and personal areas. Home contacts are made for every student early in the school year either by the core teachers or by the advisers working with them.

Another element in the provisions for guidance is the testing program which includes a test of general intelligence, a test of basic skills, a test of personality, and the Kuder Intent Inventory, the last being administered in Grade 9 in connection with the study of occupations, which requires nearly a third of a year in the social living core. "Vocational implication" is stressed, where appropriate, in other grades and courses; and work experience is provided for a "limited number" of students. The program includes placement for the small number who drop out and follow-up for all.

This description is presented here, not because it is exemplary so much as because it contains, as stated above, most or all neces-

sary elements and may serve as a sort of check list. No guidance program of a given school should be used as a pattern to be copied without discrimination by other schools, since these programs must be planned with regard for the size of schools, the state of development of guidance to date, the personnel available, the communities being served, and other characteristics peculiar to the particular school situation.

THE HOME-ROOM IN GUIDANCE

Recent inquiries have found that the home-room is the most prevalent avenue of guidance provided in junior high schools. The report of a study, not at this writing in print, of junior high schools made in 1953, found more than nine-tenths having home-room periods, the uses mentioned being in the following declining order: guidance, administration, and study.² These few categories, however, do not indicate the full scope of service of the home-room organization under preferred conditions. This scope is suggested in the following recent formulation of purposes as summarized from the literature of the subject by McFarland.

1. To provide, or to facilitate the provision of needed guidance and counseling for home-room members.
2. To co-ordinate the pupil activity program.
3. To provide democratic and co-operative group experiences, leading to the development of effective citizenship.
4. To provide a basis and a constituency for student government.
5. To co-ordinate, enhance, and clarify the entire learning program of the school.
6. To provide individual and personal help and attention for pupils.
7. To expedite administrative and clerical work, exploiting routine jobs as opportunities for educative experiences.³

It may be noted that guidance service is named first and that

² Information supplied by John H. Lounsbury, graduate student in George Peabody College for Teachers, Nashville, Tennessee.

³ John W. McFarland, "Developing Effective Home Rooms," *School Review*, LXI (October, 1953), p. 400.

it is implicit in some of the other purposes. Notwithstanding the prominence of guidance in its concerns, the home-room is, at least in accepted purposes, much more than an avenue of guidance. Acceptance of the purposes makes of the home-room a center of a wide variety of concerns and activities. For instance, among the purposes are three—namely, the second, third, and fourth in the formulation—that bear intimately on the extra-class program, which was considered in the foregoing chapter.

The increasing recognition of such purposes will explain the trends in home-room practices. The home-room program is being given more time in the schedule, with a trend toward longer periods approaching the length of classroom periods. This trend has been furthered by the practice of introducing the daily activity period, since, in schools scheduling such a period, two of the five periods per week are now typically allotted to the home-room. Time was when almost the sole responsibility of the home-room was to look after administrative routine, such as checking attendance and making announcements. This is still the practice in many schools. However, the trend has for some years been unquestionably toward longer periods with a combination of activities which include, to be sure, looking after administrative routine, but increasingly go far beyond and involve responsibility for a composite of concerns and activities significant in the life and education of youth.

One other trend touching the home-room should be noted, a trend within the growing minority of schools now developing the core curriculum. This is the practice of dispensing with the home-room period but at the same time incorporating its activities within the core program. While at first thought this trend may seem like a trend away from the home-room, it is virtually a move toward enhancing the educative significance of the activities represented, and toward integrating them in the total program of the school.

Because this chapter deals with the program of guidance, illustration here of home-room activities will be of activities in

guidance only. A considerable number of outlines of home-room programs were submitted by junior high school principals in response to the request by the author for materials descriptive of practices. Almost universally these outlines contained activities bearing on guidance. Several of these outlines show the influence of a published treatise on group guidance through the home-room and, on this account, the outline of themes in this treatise will be presented and the topics under each main theme illustrated. The treatise is one based on the experience of its authors in junior high schools of Louisville, Kentucky. The outline by semesters for the three grades is as follows:

GRADE 7

First semester: Orientation

Second semester: Social, Moral, and Ethical Guidance

GRADE 8

First semester: Recreational and Cultural Guidance

Second semester: General Educational Guidance

GRADE 9

First semester: Vocational Guidance

Second semester: Educational Guidance

Under each half-grade theme are fourteen topics. Illustrative topics by half-grades are: *Lower Seventh*, Organization of Home Room, Our School Building, Care of Personal Property, Use of Library; *Upper Seventh*, Thrift, Safety, Good Manners in School, Valuable Personality Traits; *Lower Eighth*, How to Study, Everyday Culture, Music, Sports, Hobbies; *Upper Eighth*, The Junior High School, Our Public School System, High School as Work, Courses Offered in Senior High School; *Lower Ninth*, Planning for the Future, The Importance of Self-Analysis in Choosing a Vocation, A Brief Study of Occupations (in several fields), Intensive Individual Study of a Few Occupations; *Upper Ninth*, The Advantage of Working Toward a Goal, Planning a

High School Career, Individual Problems in High School Schedules.⁴

Home-room programs of desirable effectiveness, despite the trends identified and the published helps available, are still not common enough. McFarland, whose formulation of purposes was quoted above, has also identified the reasons for home-room ineffectiveness, and the five he emphasizes are here cited, with comments on how to offset their influence. First mentioned is "lack of time." The obvious corrective is more time assigned in the schedule, such as the amounts mentioned above in illustrating activity-period arrangements, with prevention of interferences with regularity in the schedule. A second reason is failure on the part of teachers and pupils to understand the purposes of the home-room. The remedy suggested is teacher and pupil participation in formulating these purposes in the individual school. The third obstruction is indifference of teachers to the home-room and the remedy suggested by McFarland is "compensation for the extra load." A better corrective would seem to be a reasonable total working load with the home-room as part of this load. Teachers not responsible for home-rooms, usually a minority of the staff, would take on other nonteaching duties to equalize their loads with those of home-room sponsors. Fourth reason is "lack of trained personnel." The manifest corrective here would be inclusion of preparation for this responsibility in the program of teacher training and/or in-service preparation. The fifth reason is given as "inadequate program planning" and the remedy here should not require elaboration, except to say that the planning should be a coöperative project of teachers, pupils, and administrators.⁵

The potentialities of the home-room, not only in guidance but in its other important services to students and school, and

⁴ Mary E. Ford Detjen and Ervin W. Detjen, *Home Room Guidance Programs for Junior High School Years*, Boston, Houghton Mifflin Co., 1940.

⁵ *Op. cit.*, pp. 400-405.

the hindrances to its effectiveness combine to present a sizeable challenge to leadership, but there is assurance in the rather steady trend toward effectual programs in junior high schools that it is one that can be met.

OTHER ELEMENTS OF THE PROGRAM

Numerous other elements besides the home-room go to make up an adequate guidance program for junior high school years. Many have been mentioned in the illustrative program described in a foregoing section and elsewhere in the chapter. Some will be briefly described for the sake of emphasizing the need for at least several elements in case a comprehensive program cannot be maintained. The additional elements singled out for remembrance or description are orientation, the handbook, variable portions of the curriculum, tests and testing, and records. Other elements not described may be equally significant for the program.

ORIENTATION

The element of orientation of pupils to the junior high school situation should include activities both before admission and during the early period following admission. Most frequent pre-admission activities are (1) visits of personnel (principal, advisers, teachers, pupil leaders) from the junior high school to contributing elementary schools; and (2) visiting days for sixth-grade pupils in groups to the junior high school to acquaint them with the school and its program. An interesting and helpful leaflet of four pages is at hand which is used in connection with pre-admission activities of the Emerson Junior High School in Los Angeles. It is called *The Emerson Preview* and gives much information on the school in brief and in a style intelligible to a sixth-grade pupil. Among captions in the leaflet are "Where is Emerson?" "It's a Large School, So Be Prepared," "When to Report," and "What Not to Bring to School." One page presents a drawing of Emerson's "Plot Plan" and the last page contains a "Practice Registration Card."

The nature of the typical postadmission orientation may be understood from the home-room program cited above by way of illustration.

THE HANDBOOK

A type of material for guidance most frequently submitted by junior high school principals in response to this writer's request for printed descriptive matter is the students' handbook. While analysis of these booklets reveals wide variation in the kinds of items included, there is also considerable recurrence, as is suggested by the following main divisions, under which one may group the specific items, and illustrative recurrent items in each division: introductory items—table of contents, greeting from principal, the school's aims, cut of school; school organization—school calendar, daily or weekly schedule, floor plan, attendance regulations, library information; curriculum—constant and elective subjects for each grade, classification, and promotion; student activities and organizations—student-body organization and student council, clubs and other organizations, honors and awards; customs, usages, and the like—manners and courtesy, school songs and yells, home work and how to study. The content is understandably narrower in scope and simpler in junior high school than in senior high school handbooks.

Preparation of the handbook is often the work of the student council or other student committee with faculty sponsorship. It is often used as a sort of guide or textbook for the unit or section on orientation in the home-room or in the core program. When printed, the usual practice in schools of good size, it is small enough to slip into boys' pockets or girls' handbags. In smaller schools it is often mimeographed and is of larger format, but can be made to fit in the students' notebooks.

VARIABLE PORTIONS OF THE PROGRAM

The treatment of variable portions of the curriculum near the end of Chapter IV makes gratuitous anything but remention of

their significance in guidance. Besides serving the differentiating purpose of the junior high school, they serve no less in exploration which is virtually a phase of guidance. At the point referred to, variability was mentioned as being achieved through elective subjects and through variation within subjects. It is in place also to mention extra-class activities as variation in program with meaning for guidance, whatever the pattern of administering them; that is, whether by the out-of-session, activity-period, or core-program pattern.

TESTS AND TESTING

Junior high school reorganization and the testing movement have grown up contemporaneously, as both received their early impulses around the turn of the century and have been gaining momentum more or less steadily ever since. It is to be expected that inquiry on the subject would find considerable use of tests in junior high schools, although the typical testing program appears to be less extensive than that reported for the Colin Kelly Junior High School in an earlier section of this chapter, where an article on the guidance program in that school was summarized. The study in 1953 by Lounsbury found the following percentages of junior high schools using certain types of tests: 90 percent of the schools administer intelligence tests, 76 percent to *all* pupils at least once in junior high school and 14 percent to *some* pupils; 88 percent administer standardized achievement tests, 79 percent to all pupils and 9 percent to some pupils; other tests administered are reading tests (62 percent), interest inventories (35 percent), and aptitude tests (26 percent).⁶

Frequent current opinion is that, if only a single test can be administered, the most useful one is a reading test, especially one of the diagnostic type which yields measures on a number of different reading skills, not merely the measures of rate and com-

⁶ From material unpublished at this writing, supplied by John H. Lounsbury, graduate student, George Peabody College for Teachers, Nashville, Tennessee.

prehension. At the same time, it may be admitted that the typical intelligence test is in some respects a reading test. The test of intelligence being increasingly favored is one that yields not merely a single measure, but several measures of "factors" or different "mental abilities," such as ability in number, verbal meaning, space relationships, word fluency, reasoning, and memory.

A committee of consultants, working with the personnel of the Occupational and Guidance Service of the Federal Office of Education, sometime ago prepared a report on the use of tests in guidance that lists and describes the tests most serviceable in the guidance program. The list includes tests and related instruments suitable for use through elementary and secondary school levels but the information is supplied in such form that the tests applicable in junior high school grades are readily identifiable. Among those suitable for this level are scholastic aptitude tests (tests of "mental maturity," "intelligence," "primary mental abilities"); achievement tests; interest or vocational interest tests, records, or "inventories"; personal and social adjustment inventories; and special aptitude tests. Which and how many of this array of tests are to be used must, of course, be determined by the plans in the school and the resources of funds and personnel available.⁷

Besides the listing and description of tests, the complete report contains chapters on the place of testing in the guidance program; planning the program; administering, scoring, and recording results; using test results; and improving counseling skill. The chapter on planning the testing program insists that account should be taken of "four basic considerations," namely, that planning should be a coöperative enterprise on the part of teachers, pupils, and parents; that the testing program should be on a long-range basis; that the program should be "practicable" by keeping the clerical and statistical work involved within

⁷ Clifford P. Froelich and Arthur L. Benson, *Guidance Testing*, Chicago, Science Research Associates, 1948.

reasonable bounds, avoiding loss of too much time from the regular school schedule, and keeping costs within reasonable limits; that professional training and a professional attitude are imperative.⁸ If another admonition were to be added, it might relate to the use of test results and remind the reader that these are only one of many kinds of information needed in guidance, as will become apparent when mention is made below of the scope of entries on cumulative records.

While all pupils may be considered as having "problems" in varying numbers and degrees, the proportion of "problem youth," who would be among "frustrated individuals," to use a term applied by Segel, is much smaller. Although they normally make up only a small minority of students, for the sake of guiding them it is urgent to identify them. Segel has named the inventories and tests usable for the purpose: California Test of Personality, Intermediate series (grades 7-10); Detroit Adjustment Inventory (for junior and senior high school students); Mental Health Analysis, Intermediate level; Problem Check List, by Mooney (grades 7-9). He says of these questionnaires that "they get at, to some extent, the way youth looks at life, school, and his relationships with others. They do not measure personality or affective traits directly."⁹

RECORDS

The kinds of records useful in guidance toward which there have been marked trends in junior high school grades are the cumulative and the anecdotal. Of the two, the cumulative record has made much the more rapid gain in usage. The inquiry by Lounsbury of practices in junior high schools, drawn upon previously in this chapter, found the use of this type of record al-

⁸ *Op. cit.*, Chapter II. The reader interested in a comprehensive treatise on testing will find it in a book like Lee J. Cronbach, *Essentials of Psychological Testing*, New York, Harper & Brothers, 1949. 476 pp.

⁹ David Segel, *Frustration in Adolescent Youth: Its Development and Implications for the School Program*, United States Office of Education Bulletin 1951, No. 1, Washington, D.C., pp. 55-56.

most universal (99.2 percent). No detailed definition of the type was supplied to respondents, so we may be sure that they vary widely in the scope of items recorded and even in span of grades included, although as ordinarily understood, they are cumulative through all elementary (sometimes also kindergarten) and secondary school years. Lounsbury found, further, that they are used regularly by most teachers in 79 percent of the schools and that teachers in 73 percent of the schools make regular additions to them.⁹

The National Committee on Cumulative Records has made recommendations concerning the kinds of information to be recorded. These are as follows:

PERSONAL

Name

Date of birth

Evidence of birth

Place of birth

Sex

Color or race

Residence of pupil and/or parents

HOME AND COMMUNITY

Names of parents or guardians

Occupation of parents

Are parents alive or deceased?

Ratings of home environment and/or economic status

With whom does pupil live?

Birthplace of parents

Language spoken in the home

Marital status

Number of siblings, older, and younger

SCHOLARSHIP

School marks by years and subject

Special reports on failures

⁹ John H. Lounsbury, unpublished material.

Record of reading

Rank in graduating class (with number in class)

TEST SCORES AND RATINGS

General intelligence test scores

Achievement test scores

Other test scores

Personality ratings

SCHOOL ATTENDANCE

Days present and absent each year

Records of schools attended with dates

HEALTH

The following types of items are desirable if a school has a health program in which physicians and nurses are a part:

Complete health record, to be filled in by physician and nurse

Record of physical disabilities

Vaccination record

Disease census

ANECDOTAL RECORDS

A special form should be developed and may be kept easily if filed in a folding type of cumulative record or where records are kept in envelopes.

MISCELLANEOUS

Employment record during school years

Vocational plans

Counselor's notes

Extracurricular activities

Follow-up record after leaving school (employment and further education)

Space for notations by teachers and others¹⁰

Well-kept cumulative records have several uses in the school situation but they unquestionably bear heavily on the effective-

¹⁰ *Handbook of Cumulative Records* (A Report of the National Committee on Cumulative Records), United States Office of Education Bulletin 1944, No. 5, Washington, D.C., pp. 8-9.

ness of guidance, as may be seen in the "general uses" listed by Traxler. According to him, these records

. . . enable teachers to get acquainted with new pupils quickly, are very useful in dividing classes into small groups for purposes of instruction, help teachers and counselors identify the weakness of individual pupils and plan treatment, enable the school to discover the pupils with unusually high general mental ability and to plan special work in line with these interests, help the school to discover special talents in pupils which should be developed, furnish leads to reasons why pupils are not happy and well adjusted in the school, provide information which may be used in conferring with pupils about achievement, contain information which may be used in conferring with certain pupils about problems of behavior, serve as a basis of conferences with parents about the ability, achievement, growth, and school adjustment of their children, contain information useful in conferences with teachers about individual pupils, are useful in guiding pupils into or away from certain courses, and thus reducing failure through careful planning . . . are especially valuable in helping pupils and parents make plans for the pupil's career after graduation, furnish much of the information to be used in making case studies of certain pupils, and form an excellent basis for reports to colleges and to prospective employers.¹¹

A less common but helpful supplementary record is the "anecdotal record," which, in the words of Krugman and Wrightstone, is "a series of notes on exactly what a child said or did in concrete situations."¹² As successive observations are accumulated, the record for a pupil contains a variety and continuity of evidence which "yields a picture of the child's behavior patterns and growth, his interests and attitudes, his strengths and weaknesses and problems. These records are not to be confused with case studies which contain more extensive data

¹¹ Arthur E. Traxler, *How to Use Cumulative Records*, Chicago, Science Research Associates, 1947, pp. 13-17.

¹² Judith A. Krugman and J. Wayne Wrightstone, *A Guide to the Use of Anecdotal Records*, Educational Research Bulletin of the Bureau of Reference, Research and Statistics, No. 11, Board of Education of the City of New York, 1949, p. 1.

including complete developmental and family histories. Anecdotal records are reports of current observations of specific incidents which illustrate the child's reactions. Such observations are entered on these records frequently enough to give an adequate picture of the child's growth."

These authors affirm that anecdotal records reveal data important for adjustment, help teachers understand and guide children, and "are of value not only to the teacher who makes them but to other staff or agency workers who are concerned with the child's development and adjustment."¹³ They urge that the records be "objective and free from bias,"¹⁴ that the observations be made in a variety of situations,¹⁵ and that "the entries report specific incidents rather than generalized descriptions or evaluations."¹⁶

The observations are often recorded on sheets of the same size as the cumulative records and, where these records are in the form of folders, which is now a frequent practice, are conveniently filed within the folders.

PERSONNEL FOR GUIDANCE

The increasing significance in guidance of the home-rooms and, therefore, of the home-room teachers or sponsors, was set forth in the foregoing section on that element in junior high school organization. Mention has also been made of the trend within schools with core programs of having the core teachers take over the guidance and other functions of the home-room. The importance of principals in the program must be assumed, and one may infer from the rate of development of the program that they are increasingly aware of their responsibilities for leadership in this area. What the principals do in the program beyond providing leadership is conditioned by the size of the

¹³ *Op. cit.*, p. 2.

¹⁴ *Op. cit.*, p. 4.

¹⁵ *Op. cit.*, p. 13.

¹⁶ *Op. cit.*, p. 18.

schools and the more specialized personnel they are able to secure.

Two functionaries in guidance that are being increasingly added to or differentiated by special assignment out of regular members of the staff are (1) advisers or counselors, and (2) directors of guidance, although they may perform the appropriate duties without bearing these particular titles. Both these types of functionaries are more often part-time than full-time in these special capacities, serving also as teachers, deans of girls or of boys, vice-principals, etc. The advisers or counselors give special attention to pupils with problems referred to them by the home-room teachers, do regularly-scheduled counseling with their quotas of pupils, or carry on both these kinds of advisory activities. Their number increases with the size of the schools. The person heading up the guidance program usually comes to his responsibilities with some degree of specialized professional equipment in the way of training and/or experience in testing and measurement, statistics, mental hygiene, counseling, and the like.

The guidance program tends increasingly to enlist the co-operation of other (than home-room) teachers in relation to their specialties, as when the teachers of physical education advise in matters pertaining to health. A small proportion of schools have visiting teachers. The practice of employing such functionaries is not likely to increase in schools where core teachers make visits to the homes of members of their groups. The guidance clinics conducted in some junior high schools call on additional personnel from outside the school, such as the school psychologist or the school physician for the system.

CHAPTER VIII

The Program for Differentiation

THE URGENCY AND ELEMENTS OF THE PROGRAM

The program of provisions for individual differences among pupils is like the guidance program considered in the foregoing chapter in that it stems directly from one of the junior high school's prominent purposes: in this instance, of course, the recognition of individual differences, or, to use the briefer designation, "differentiation." The two purposes of guidance and differentiation are also in many respects complementary, and their achievement is sometimes furthered by similar provisions.

As was indicated in the chapter on the purposes of reorganization, differentiation is even more necessary during adolescence than in earlier years because of increasing diversity in the nature, ability, interests and needs in this period. The urgency of an adequate program for differentiation is further augmented by certain practices and policies which have over a long period been spreading in junior high school grades, of admitting age and social maturity to the criteria for pupil promotion and relying less rigidly on academic competence. These emerging policies have been pointed up by French, who particularized them as follows:

1. Entrance to the junior high school should be on a social-maturity basis, not on a subject-achievement basis. . . .
2. The educational program of the junior high school should be

adapted to the abilities, the needs, and the interests of the social-age group specified in the preceding policy. . . .

3. Regular, normal progress for each pupil through the junior high school and through each course should be the general rule. . . . This is not necessarily a "no-failure" policy although in practice it may approach this goal. . . . There may be a few who will not work at the most appropriate tasks that the school can supply. . . . But to whatever degree there are still those who will not make a reasonable effort, there may be "failure."
4. Entrance to the senior high school or some other school . . . should be the regular aftermath for each junior high school pupil who has worked reasonably well at the program approved for him by the junior high school. . . .
5. The guidance and counseling service in the junior high school needs to be a decentralized personal service to each pupil which pays particular attention to interest patterns, to the kinds and levels of ability, and to the meaning of these in terms of this present and future educational program. . . .¹

Acceptance of such policies has been resisted by traditionalists within and without the schools, but application of them has seen continuous, even if at times slow, gain. Without doubt, putting them in operation requires maximal development of the program for differentiation.

The junior high school, like every other school, makes the time-honored provisions for individual differences, such as the coaching of slow pupils. However, it also carries on elements more distinctive of reorganized schools. Among the components of the program for differentiation are certain features considered in foregoing chapters. The core program described in the chapter on curriculum organization must be counted as one of the most important. The block-time arrangements that accompany the core program are planned to assure a better understanding of the pupil by the teacher, an understanding which is an essen-

¹ Will French, "Some Basic Policies for the Junior High School," *Bulletin of the National Association of Secondary School Principals*, XXIX (April, 1945), pp. 5-9, 16.

tial preliminary to recognizing the needs of the individual. The variable portions of the curriculum, both those provided through elective subjects and the variations within required and elective subjects, may be counted as serving the need for differentiation; as likewise does the unitary organization within courses, which allows for variation of activities within the units, and of the rate of completing these divisions of the courses. The extra-class activities, by whatever pattern these are administered, that is, whether in an activity period, within the core program, or out-of-session, provide one of the best means of differentiation. The interdependence of the functions of guidance and of differentiation make many of the elements of the guidance program gateways to differentiation.

Beyond the elements previously discussed are certain others which are to be found operative in varying proportions of junior high schools. These are accelerated programs for brighter pupils, special classes for slow pupils and other exceptional groups, ability grouping, and remedial instruction. These will be considered in remaining sections of this chapter.

ACCELERATION FOR GIFTED PUPILS

An element of the program for differentiation often urged and sometimes incorporated with junior high school reorganization a quarter century ago or more is a plan of acceleration in which brighter, or gifted, pupils progress at a rate more rapid than one grade per year. The plan emerged from a concept of "economy of time" that was prominent in the claims made for reorganization in the early stages of the movement.² The means proposed for achieving the saving of time were mainly two: (1) shortening the period of schooling, more especially for brighter pupils; and (2) enriching the program in junior high school grades, so that all pupils would receive more and better education in the *same* period of time. The meager and repetitious

² Leonard V. Koos, *The Junior High School*, Boston, Ginn & Company, 1927, pp. 17, 28 ff.

curriculum of the upper grades of the elementary school during the early rise of the junior high school was ample justification of the policy of enrichment.

The main arguments presented on behalf of the plan of acceleration were that the more rapid progress provides a program better adapted to the pupils' superior abilities and that there would be financial saving to the public in moving pupils through the school in less time. The latter argument was taken over from advocacy, by certain educational leaders of the period, of shortening the full span of education for all pupils. However, the advocacy of shortening the period of schooling has in the mean time almost faded out in the face of the social and economic trends mentioned in Chapter II while considering the obsolescent purposes of the junior high school. The enrichment phase would still be pertinent if most junior high schools had not in the interim taken long strides toward adapting certain portions of the high school program to the junior high school level and bringing in much new content and activities from other sources.

The plan of acceleration was introduced into junior high schools of several systems during the period of early advocacy. Most of these systems have since relinquished it, and this relinquishment may be accounted one of the trends, although not a major one because of the relatively small proportion of schools having introduced the plan. One system in which it has been continued is that of New York City. Fortunately, for purposes of considering the acceptability of the plan, an effort at systematic objective appraisal of this plan has recently appeared in print. This study, reported by Justman, is here briefly described; its main conclusions are cited, and comment made on them.³ The procedure in the investigation involved a comparison of matched pairs of special-progress and normal-progress pupils

³ Joseph Justman, "Personal and Social Adjustment of Intellectually Gifted Accelerants on Non-Accelerants in Junior High Schools," *School Review*, LXI (November, 1953), pp. 468-478; and "Academic Achievement of Intellectually Gifted Accelerants and Non-Accelerants in Junior High School," *School Review*, LXII (March, 1954), pp. 142-150.

from eleven normal-progress and eleven special-progress classes in nine junior high schools located in comparable middle-class neighborhoods in the city. The classes enroll children with intelligence quotients of 130 and higher who also possess personal characteristics of initiative, enthusiasm, willingness to work, reliability, regular attendance, and capacity for sustained work.⁴ The matching was on the following bases: school attended, grade, sex, chronological age, mental age, and intelligence quotient. The numbers of matched pairs represented in the different comparisons ranged from 70 to 95.

The appraisal instruments used in the comparisons of academic achievement were the Coöperative Tests in Mathematics, Science, and Social Studies and the Iowa Work-Study Skills Test. Comparisons of ratings were made also on original stories and poems written by the pupils. The conclusions from this phase of the whole study were:

The segregation of intellectually gifted pupils in a special class is generally accompanied by academic achievement superior to that normally attained by equally gifted pupils who remain in normal-progress groups. To be sure, in several of the areas to which attention is . . . directed, the better attainment which special-progress pupils manifest must be attributable, in part, to the greater amount of course work which they complete and the selection, for such classes, of pupils who show greater initial mastery of reading skills. However, these two factors, operating independently or jointly, do not wholly account for the superiority of the special-progress group. The indications are that some of the advantage is associated with pupil enrollment in a special-progress group.

. . . On the basis of the evidence resulting from this study, it is clear that the segregation of intellectually gifted pupils in homogeneous special-progress groups on the junior high school level has some value.⁵

The appraisal instruments used in the comparisons of personal and social adjustment were three sociometric techniques, namely,

⁴ *Op. cit.*, p. 468.

⁵ *Op. cit.*, p. 150.

a "friendship nomination" technique, a modified form of the Ohio Social Acceptance Scale; "casting characters for class plays—a variant of the Guess Who test"; and the California Test of Personality, Intermediate Series. The investigator's general conclusion from this phase of the comparison is:

. . . It must be emphasized that similarity in functioning on the part of the two groups of pupils is far more characteristic than difference. In general, there appears to be little difference in the personal and social adjustment of matched groups of intellectually gifted pupils drawn from special-progress and normal-progress classes. The indications are, then, that failure to place gifted pupils in homogeneously organized groups will not be reflected in less adequate personal and social adjustment, nor will such placement be associated with greater personal and social adequacy.⁶

The reports on academic achievement and on personal and social adjustment are made by Justman in two independent articles without discussion of the possible significance of the conclusions from the two phases for each other. One may venture to add the further conclusion that the gains in academic achievement by pupils in the special-progress group were made without loss in personal and social adjustment. This added conclusion tends to set aside the criticism made by opponents of plans of acceleration that, even though they may work out to academic advantage of the accelerants, the advantage would be offset by loss in personal and social ways. A serious criticism in this direction, left to some extent uncovered by the comparisons on the social phase, is that plans of acceleration may conduce to undemocratic attitudes, for example, snobbery, on the part of accelerants.

SLOW-LEARNING AND OTHER EXCEPTIONAL GROUPS

The concentration of enrollments in the grades of junior high schools as compared with the more limited enrollments in cor-

⁶ *Op. cit.*, p. 478.

responding grades of elementary schools has encouraged the organization in junior high schools of special classes for many exceptional groups of children. By far the most frequently provided special classes are those for "slow-learning" or "mentally retarded" pupils. This provision for individual differences may be briefly described by drawing on statements concerning the plan by two principals of junior high schools in widely separated sections of the country—Newark, New Jersey, and Long Beach, California. The principal in Newark has written in rather enthusiastic vein about a special program for pupils of low mentality who have been admitted as special groups.⁷ He says that the pupils are at an age when they resent continuing in elementary schools and he contends that they deserve a place in the secondary school. He argues that they profit from a socializing experience even if they do not make much progress academically. An inference is that in some of their work they are with normal pupils but that, in the main, their program is a separate one with special teachers.

The principal in Long Beach⁸ mentions both "slow-learning classes" which are "kept at a maximum" of twenty pupils and are "without undue concern for subjects" and "modified classes," in which pupils "can do regular junior high school work in smaller quantities or in somewhat modified form if grouped so they can go at their own speed." He says that the intelligence quotient is not used as an arbitrary boundary for grouping but that "the slow-learning class is made up of those below 75 . . . and the modified class of those from 75 to 90 who are not keeping up in their academic classes." He also mentions provision in his school of "fast-learning classes."

Special classes are provided in junior high schools for many other exceptional groups. Illustration of their scope in the junior high schools of a large city system may be provided by drawing

⁷ Leon Mones, "The Binet Pupil Gets a Chance," *School and Society*, LXVII (April 10, 1948), pp. 281-283.

⁸ Stanley Ford Howland, "Administrative Provisions for Adapting the Junior High School Program to Pupils," *Bulletin of the National Association of Secondary School Principals*, XXIX (April, 1945), pp. 89-92.

from the materials in a bulletin of the Division of Secondary Education of the Los Angeles City School Districts, which identifies the special classes maintained in each of the thirty-seven junior high schools in the system.⁹ Among the classes are those of the types just mentioned who are designated in the bulletin as "mentally handicapped." For these there were two provisions: Classes for "slow learners," "for low ability pupils who cannot do the work in regular academic classes" (in 30 schools); and "Classes for mentally retarded . . . designated special training classes . . . for pupils of seriously retarded intellectual development" (25 schools). Other special classes listed are:

EDUCATIONALLY RETARDED

Reading Improvement and Remedial Mathematics: "for pupils of average or above average ability, who show significant discrepancies between reading achievement and expectancy, or arithmetic achievement and expectancy" (21 and 14 schools, respectively).

GIFTED

Leadership: "for pupils who have such qualifications and wish to participate in such a capacity in student-body activities" (29 schools).

Enrichment by Ability Grouping: "for intellectually superior pupils who require an enriched course of study in certain academic subjects" (32 schools).

LINGUISTICALLY HANDICAPPED

Foreign Adjustment: "for foreign-born pupils who cannot communicate adequately in English" (40 schools).

Speech Correction: "for pupils handicapped by speech defects which interfere with oral recitation" (35 schools).

PHYSICALLY HANDICAPPED

Acoustically Handicapped: "for deaf and hard-of-hearing pupils whose acoustic loss is sufficiently great to require the help and

⁹ *Special Classes in Junior High Schools*, Division of Secondary Education Bulletin, No. 13, November 17, 1950.

guidance of specially trained teachers in rooms with special equipment and materials of instruction" (1 school).

Lip Reading: "for pupils whose acoustic impairment necessitates only continued training in lip-reading" (31 schools).

Corrective Physical Education: "for pupils whose health or physical condition is such that they require a special program of physical education" (31 schools).

Sight-Saving: "for pupils who remain enrolled in some regular classes but whose loss or impairment of vision warrants their having the help and guidance of special teachers in rooms with special equipment . . ." (4 schools).

SOCIALLY HANDICAPPED

"for pupils who need particular help in making social adjustments" (12 schools).

In addition to these special classes in junior high schools, the bulletin lists provisions elsewhere in the system for pupils who are "crippled and delicate," tubercular, and blind. It may be assumed that the numbers of schools maintaining some of these classes vary from year to year, depending on the concentration of pupils requiring the special attention, and that for some of the groups the program is not entirely separate but is a combination of special instruction and work in regular classes.

ABILITY GROUPING

Ability grouping differs from the plans for special classes for mentally retarded, which are approved by almost all, or for the gifted, which are approved by many who oppose the plan of ability grouping, in dividing the pupils of a given grade in a school into three or more classifications on the basis of one or more criteria related to scholastic competence—such as intelligence quotient, mental age, reading ability, or school marks in previous years. It is sometimes called "homogeneous" grouping, but this designation is now being used less often than formerly

because experience has taught that real homogeneity is unattainable and that the best that can be hoped for with this grouping is *less heterogeneity*.

Notwithstanding controversy over the desirability of ability grouping, it is still being practiced in large proportions of junior high schools. Lounsbury's study in 1953 found the following percentages of schools for the different bases for class grouping:¹⁰ ability, 20; "chance," 31; some by ability and some chance, 35; social maturity, 9; other, 7; no answer, 4. Addition of the first and third percentages warrants the conclusion that more than half these junior high schools were practicing ability grouping to some extent. A writer who personally visited 71 junior high schools in 24 states during the first semester of the 1950-51 school year reported "a very strong swing toward ability grouping."¹¹ He states that for sectioning purposes, the intelligence quotient "may be used, but, in general, reading ability, social maturity, past records, and opinions of counselors are the strong factors. . . ."

On the other hand, Wright reports, from an investigation made in 1950, that only approximately a fourth of the schools with core programs used ability "as one of several important factors in assigning pupils to core classes."¹² She quotes certain writers in the field of curriculum who contend that ability grouping has "no place" in the core curriculum and she says on behalf of this position as against ability grouping, "The core represents a living-together type of situation. It affords opportunity to learn how to get along with others in work and in a social setting. It recognizes that people who are different have a variety of differ-

¹⁰ Information from the report, at this writing unpublished, of an inquiry by John H. Lounsbury, graduate student at George Peabody College for Teachers, Nashville, Tennessee.

¹¹ A. H. Lauchner, "A Study of Trends in Junior High School Practices in Twenty-four States," *Bulletin of the National Association of Secondary School Principals*, XXXV (December, 1951), p. 121.

¹² Grace S. Wright, *Core Curriculum Development: Problems and Practices*. United States Office of Education Bulletin 1952, No. 5, Washington, D.C., p. 27.

ent types of contributions to make. A unit of work in core, with the many activities involved, presumably affords the opportunity for exercising varying abilities."¹³ In brief, most advocates of the core curriculum regard ability grouping as contravening the democratic spirit and function of the core and of the school. At the same time, one can hardly question that the core tends to compensate for losses in individualization that are entailed through surrender of ability grouping.

The arguments against ability grouping are both explicit and implicit in a report of experience in the Claremont Junior High School of Oakland (California) in which ability grouping had been practiced for many years, but had been abandoned for what the authors of the report call "social grouping."¹⁴ The plan of ability grouping was given up for the usual reasons: "the cat always got out of the bag, with ensuing heartbreak for the dull and snobbery for the bright"; child friendships in elementary school are broken up; public relations suffer. The following excerpts explain the new plan and the observations on how it worked out.

. . . the school decided to group children alphabetically in the low seventh, and at the end of this semester to regroup them on the basis of their requests for classification. The seventh-grade teachers giving the correlated work in English-social studies asked each child to name four or five students with whom he would like to associate in the high seventh, in the low eighth, and in the high-eighth grades, and to a certain extent in the low-ninth and high-ninth grades. These teachers drew up a tentative regrouping for the high-seventh semester, giving attention to students' requests and the individuals' degree of maturity. The reclassification then was voted on by all teachers in the low-seventh grade and was subsequently announced.

As the plan of social grouping developed during the first year or two, it was evaluated in terms of (1) parents' approval, (2)

¹³ *Op. cit.*, p. 26.

¹⁴ Helen H. Hunt and Leslie G. Smith, "A Junior High School Tries Social Grouping," *California Journal of Secondary Education*, XVI (December, 1941), pp. 480-481.

teachers' satisfaction, and (3) stabilizing effect on children. On the basis of these criteria it was better than any other plan tried.

Now, after eight years of experience with the method of grouping, Claremont continues to use it. The problems which arise through its use may easily be described. The teacher must plan much more flexibly. There must be individual and group work if the extremes are to be stimulated. . . . There must also be a flexible curriculum. . . . But such mechanical adjustments seem minor difficulties when contrasted with the self-respect and sense of individual worth which are saved for many children.

In view of the putative hazard to democratic values in ability grouping, some junior high schools have undertaken to offset or reduce any detriment by maintaining ability grouping in certain courses or subjects while disregarding scholastic competence in class groups in remaining subjects and in other aspects of school life, like the home-room and extra-class activities. The courses identified for ability grouping are those developing basic skills like those in reading and computation. An instance of this plan described in print is that explained by the principal of the East View Junior High School in White Plains, New York¹⁵ in which the pupils are in ability groups in what he refers to as the "tool" subjects (English and mathematics in Grade 7; English, mathematics, and social studies in Grade 8; and English, social studies, and general science in Grade 9). "For all other subject matter and for administrative or social activity (home-room) the groupings are cut directly across the *tool* subject groups, thus insuring a heterogeneity of academic achievement within these groupings."

The arguments in behalf of ability grouping center around the simplification of teaching tasks by reducing the heterogeneity in chance groups and in improved scholastic achievement. The first advantage may be assumed and the second has been at least

¹⁵ L. Paul Miller, "What Improvements Can Be Made in Organization, Administration, and Supervision in the Junior High School?" *Bulletin of the National Association of Secondary School Principals*, XXXVI (March, 1952), pp. 150-151.

in part substantiated by objective inquiry. The consideration mustered against it and for heterogeneous, chance, or social grouping is mainly, as previously stated, that it contravenes the democratic purpose of our schools. The charge is philosophical and speculative, and it is grave, if true. It has not yet been established by objective proof, but the lack of investigations does not constitute refutation. The issues can only be settled by large-scale inquiry. Scholastic and sociometric techniques for such an inquiry are now at hand and hundreds of schools carry on the practice of ability grouping, so that a comprehensive investigation in the schools should be feasible and would certainly be timely. Until we have conclusive objective proof of its undesirability, ability grouping promises to remain a frequent means of differentiation.

REMEDIAL INSTRUCTION

The last of the elements of the program of differentiation to be considered is remedial instruction, in particular the provisions for it in special classes rather than in pupils' regular classes. Earlier in the chapter, in listing the special classes provided in the junior high schools of Los Angeles, mention was made of the "Reading Improvement" and "Remedial Mathematics" classes. In any large number of junior high schools, the most frequent remedial class provided is in reading and the next most frequent is in arithmetic, or "mathematics." Less often there are remedial classes in social studies, science, and other subjects.

Remedial classes, especially those in reading which are considered here, have been on the increase in junior high schools over a long period of years. There are good reasons for this. An underlying factor are the flexible promotion policies approaching those advocated by French, as quoted near the opening of the chapter: such policies are certain to bring into and move along in the junior high school pupils with deficiencies in basic skills; the junior high school can do no less than to go as far as possible in correcting them. A second reason is the fact that reading is such a pervasive medium of instruction in the school, that with-

out necessary skills in it, the pupil is unsuccessful in a host of other areas. Still another factor has been added by diagnostic tests in reading, which identify both the kinds and the intensity of the pupils' disabilities.

In understanding the place of the remedial reading class in the program concerned with the reading abilities of pupils, it is well to keep in mind the three kinds of organization that, according to Traxler,¹⁶ are needed to meet reading needs throughout elementary- and secondary-school grades. They are, namely, developmental reading for all pupils; corrective reading for those pupils whose reading difficulties are comparatively mild and are apparently uncomplicated by emotional problems; and remedial reading for those pupils with severe reading difficulty. Obviously, the special class is for the third group, individual members of which may attend the special class only or both the regular and the remedial classes.

The practices in administering remedial reading classes have been reported by Brink and Witty.¹⁷ Although the schools answering the authors' inquiries are referred to in the body of the article as "high schools" and are presumably 4-year institutions above Grade 8, the practices reported cannot be widely different from those followed in junior high schools and some are, therefore, drawn upon here. As to frequency of class sessions, the most common practice is to meet regularly five days each week. "There is wide variation in the amount of time pupils spend in remedial-reading classes. The minimum time is six weeks; the maximum three years; the average, between one semester and a year." A minority only of the teachers responsible for the classes are full-time specialists, and others "are regular teachers who volunteer or are drafted for the job, and a large majority . . . have had no definite preparation for the work." In selecting pupils to be en-

¹⁶ Arthur E. Traxler, "Remedial Reading Today," *School Review*, LXI (January, 1953), p. 19.

¹⁷ William G. Brink and Paul A. Witty, "Current Practices in Remedial Reading in Secondary Schools," *School Review*, LVII (May-June, 1949), pp. 260-266.

rolled in remedial classes, most schools depend on two sources of information—testing and recommendations of members of the faculty. In three-fourths of the schools the results of standardized reading tests are regarded as of great value.

The investigators found that major attention is given in remedial classes to helping pupils develop basic reading abilities and skills and to stimulating greater interest and enjoyment in reading. Experiences reported as desirable for improving reading ability and tastes are: (1) activities involved in understanding the needs and interests of pupils, (2) activities for extending and enriching experiences through reading, (3) activities for developing meaning through reading, (4) activities for developing speed of reading, (5) activities for developing ability to evaluate printed materials, and (6) activities to promote the development of good study habits. The means of evaluating pupils' progress reported most frequently are: (1) teachers' records of materials read by individual pupils, (2) results on standardized reading tests, (3) pupils' records of their own reading, and (4) subjective appraisals of progress by the teacher of the remedial-reading class.

Although evidence from a recent study of remedial reading in junior high schools is not at hand, it is the writer's belief, from materials submitted by principals and from first-hand contacts, that it is by this time further along in development than as reported for traditional high school years by Brink and Witty. This would be expected, not only because of the interval of years since they made their study, but more on account of the generally acknowledged central responsibility of school grades at this level to develop basic skills like those represented in reading. This must be true also for remedial programs in arithmetic and other areas. Remedial classes rank, in realization and in promise, among the most prominent elements of the program for differentiation that have been reviewed in this and foregoing chapters. This is not to say that remediation would not be improved by expansion and refinement of this provision in many schools.

CHAPTER IX

Prospects of Further Reorganization

A CONTINUOUSLY DYNAMIC MOVEMENT

During the approximate half-century since its inception in early prototypes, the movement for junior high school reorganization has advanced at a remarkable rate. As reported in the first chapter, the only periods during the last three decades in which the movement experienced appreciable slowdowns were the years of the great depression and of the clamping-down of priorities for building materials before and during World War II. More recent years have witnessed a reacceleration which has brought reorganized schools to a stage of predominance over unreorganized schools both in percent of schools and in percent of pupils enrolled in high school grades.

It was to be expected that over so long a period the purposes entertained for reorganized schools would be modified by social and economic trends. Certain "functions" put forward during earlier years, like retention of pupils and provision of opportunities for vocational education, have been displaced by the trends that have kept children in school and have advanced the age at which workers are given employment. The essential purposes of reorganization have, however, persisted. At the center of these is recognition of the needs of youth during early adolescence. In the main, other purposes, among the more prominent being exploration and guidance and the recognition of individual differences, are intimately associated through being corollaries of

this central purpose. Another purpose, clearly seen in steady progress toward unification within the new school's total program, is integration.

These purposes are peculiar to the reorganized school to the degree that distinctiveness is determined by the pupils' age level, and it is now admitted that they are appropriate for other age levels and for the same level in schools traditionally organized insofar as it is possible to achieve them there. A spread of these purposes to other levels and other schools has been a major beneficial influence of the junior high school reorganization movement.

The patterns of grade-grouping that have made greatest gains are those that place grades 7-12 together, either on a 3-3 or an undivided basis. Next in frequency come separate junior and senior high schools. Comparative appraisals give some precedence to the grouping in which the six grades are associated (3-3) or integrated, but there is also partial evidence that junior high school grades in these plans are subject to some measure of neglect in favor of the senior high school level. However, in school systems working out the associated (3-3) or undivided 6-year plan as the basic pattern, the issue of preference is to some extent an academic one, because in large systems more units for housing pupils in grades 7-9 will be required than for pupils in grades 10-12.

Two other patterns have been advocated and operated during the last two or three decades. One is the 7-5 plan proposed and established in a small number of systems. The other is the 6-4-4 plan now in operation in a number of school systems which have been extended upward to include junior college years. This pattern has the support of findings of objective inquiry comparing it with other reorganizational patterns. If we accept the preponderant preference of superintendents as indicative, this pattern will come into increasing prominence in practice as school systems are extended upward to include grades 13-14.¹

¹ Sebastian V. Martorana, "Superintendents View Plans of Grade Organization," *School Review*, LVIII (May, 1950), pp. 269-276.

The junior high school curriculum has experienced two main trends, the second succeeding and representing a natural extension of the other. First, the piecemeal curriculum inherited from upper grades of the 8-year elementary school was being replaced up to 1930 in many schools by general courses. This has been followed in numerous schools by the core curriculum, accompanied by block-time arrangements. The second trend is recognized as a further long step toward curriculum integration. At this writing, study of any large number of junior high schools will find three types of curriculum organization—the traditional piecemeal, the general-course, and the core-curriculum plans—although there is wide variation within each type.

Curriculum reorganization has been accompanied by a retreat from departmentalization—a retreat which has been encouraged by block-time arrangements and the core curriculum.

The extra-class program saw early development in junior high schools and has continued to thrive, with trends from out-of-session arrangements toward activity-period scheduling and absorption in the core curriculum, both of which serve to integrate it increasingly with the curriculum. The program of guidance and provisions for individual differences in junior high schools, reciprocal to each other and backed as they are by acknowledged purposes geared to the nature and needs of the early adolescent, after having lagged somewhat behind development of extra-class activities, are now flourishing. These programs are made up of many elements, one of which, the home-room, they utilize in common. The home-room, an almost universal element in junior high school grades, has improved in service through advent of block-time arrangements and is displaced only where the social-living core (absorbing the functions of the home-room) is in operation.

The impressive fact from a review of the half-century of history of junior high school reorganization is that the changes that have been and are still being wrought by it, not only in the external pattern but also in the internal arrangements of the schools, mark it as a dynamic movement of great proportions and

significance. It is so significant that it was deserving of identification by Allen as a part of *The Big Change*,² if only he had included a more comprehensive review of educational changes of the period.

OBSTACLES TO OVERCOME

In the face of a movement so dynamic, speculation naturally turns on the influences that may have in the past prevented it, and may still be preventing it, from making even more rapid strides toward universality. What are the obstacles? Some will be here identified and briefly considered.

Without doubt a major obstruction in some states is the district organization. This is notably true in California and Illinois, two of the most populous states. The prevailing district maintaining high schools in California is the union high school district which is autonomous with respect to districts maintaining elementary schools. Junior high school reorganization is practically universal in urban centers with unitary districts in California, but it has made relatively little progress in union high school districts, notwithstanding a statute providing a procedure by which high schools may take over grades 7 and 8. The late Aubrey A. Douglass, long a leader in secondary education and for some years connected with the California's State Department of Education, while discussing various problems of the junior high school,³ reaffirmed that the union high school district in that state is inimical to junior high school reorganization.

Again, in Illinois (outside Chicago), unitary districts in many urban centers long ago effected junior high school reorganization, while much less progress in this direction has been made in township and community high school districts by which most high schools in the state are maintained. A small proportion of the stronger elementary school districts within township high

² Frederick Lewis Allen, *The Big Change: America Transforms Itself, 1900-1950*, New York, Harper & Brothers, 1952.

³ Aubrey A. Douglass, "Persistent Problems of the Junior High," *California Journal of Secondary Education*, XX (February, 1945), pp. 110-120.

school districts have gone as far as they can toward thoroughgoing reorganization by establishing junior high schools including grades 7 and 8 only. In such states the existing district organization becomes entrenched and next to impossible to dislodge and replace by the unitary district which permits and encourages reorganization.

Another serious obstacle to junior high school reorganization must be the expectation that junior high school education will prove more costly than education in corresponding grades of the conventional organization. Persons responsible for the leadership that would extend reorganization may be fearful of promoting a plan calling for greater outlays. The best inquiry into junior high school costs, one by Gooch,⁴ well-nigh a classic in its field, disclosed that per pupil costs in junior high schools did not run appreciably higher than in corresponding grades of systems with the 8-4 organization. This was because the reorganized schools had often not incorporated more of the features of the "standard junior high school" than had the traditional systems. To this expectation of greater costs for new features and facilities should be added the certainty that reorganization will require new housing, calling for capital outlays and bond issues in what may seem like spectacular amounts. Many administrators otherwise favorable to reorganization are hesitant, in view of the additional costs, to undertake to lead their communities toward commitment to it, especially at a time when cost burdens are mounting even without improvement of school services.

Other obstacles are sometimes cited by persons responsible for leadership for improvement in our school systems, among them the unsuitability of location and capacity of present school buildings, the inflexibility of the existing community and school system, and the like. These obstacles, and even those previously mentioned—district organization and greater costs—may in a

⁴ Wilbur I. Gooch, *Junior High School Costs*, Teachers College Contributions to Education, No. 604, New York, Teachers College, Columbia University, 1934.

sense be explained by ignorance of the advantages of reorganization and/or complacency arising either from ignorance or from a rationalized belief that the disadvantages are somehow being compensated for in traditionally organized schools.

An instance of impediment to reorganization which is certainly not to be explained by ignorance, and at its worst might be near-complacency, is afforded in a recent conversation about the subject with the administrative head of the school system in one of the few larger cities of the country not now committed to junior high school reorganization. The population of the city is not far from a half-million. The system is organized on the 8-4 plan, although a survey by an outside agency years ago recommended junior high school reorganization. The superintendent, before coming to this system, had a record favorable to reorganization, both through discerning writing and constructive leadership in the actual school situation. During the conversation he asserted that his system would not have junior high schools "in the foreseeable future." Reasons given were the pressing need for accommodations for more pupils in the 4-year high schools and the belief he now holds, in common with administrative heads in some other unreorganized systems, that the disadvantages to youth are substantially compensated for by certain improvements in upper grades of 8-year elementary schools. Without doubt, some of the features and facilities accompanying reorganization are applicable to schools in the conventional pattern, but most of them either are out of reach for elementary schools of limited enrollments or would be provided only at inordinate cost.

In connection with consideration of the feasibility of incorporating the features of the junior high school in the upper grades of the 8-year elementary school, it is pertinent to quote once more from the conclusions of the two authors who, a few years ago, prepared a digest of the research and literature on the junior high school for a group of school superintendents in the Chicago area.

. . . It appears that there is abundant justification for a somewhat distinctive type of educational program for young adolescents. This distinctive program apparently should have some of the characteristics of the sheltered, simpler organization of elementary education; and some of the characteristics of the complex, departmentalized organization of the high school. The school plant for the early adolescent much include more elaborate outdoor and indoor physical education facilities, larger extracurriculum space, and more specialized home-rooms and departmental rooms than would be necessary for the lower and middle elementary grades.

. . . the more elaborate facilities of early adolescent education will require centralized schools of the junior high school type, if financial economy is to be achieved in a school district. Elaborate facilities cannot be afforded in every elementary school, unless the elementary schools are very large; but they can be afforded . . . if as many as two or three hundred early adolescent youth can be gathered together.”⁵

The admission that the “elaborate facilities” needed for early adolescent education can be provided in large elementary schools deserves the further observation that such large schools are now generally being discouraged in favor of smaller “community” elementary schools that require much shorter travel distances for pupils attending them.

The notion that the features of junior high school reorganization can be provided in the upper grades of the 8-year elementary schools is more often entertained than it deserves. It arises from a limited conception of what constitutes a junior high school. Illustrative of such a limited conception is the description of the provisions made in the upper grades of an elementary school district in the belief that the “community has achieved the same goals with another type of administrative organization.”⁶ The elements

⁵ Dan H. Cooper and Orville E. Peterson, *Schools for Young Adolescents: The Upper Elementary and Lower Secondary Grades*, a publication of the Superintendents' Study Club, Chicago, Ill., June, 1949, p. 11.

⁶ Stanford Hannah, “Managing Without a Junior High School,” *California Journal of Secondary Education*, XVI (December, 1941), pp. 473-475.

named in the description as having been provided are "homogeneous grouping"; "opportunity room," plus the use of a specialist for the correction of speech and other physical defects; "vitalized curriculum"; "use of visual aids"; "departmentalization in a modified form"; and activities for "bridging the gap"—conferences of teachers and administrators, high-school counselors visit eighth grades, eighth-grade visiting day, and orientation course in Grade 9 known as "Social Science I." All these elements can be identified as being provided in junior high schools but they fall far short of the features of reorganization described in foregoing chapters. Admittedly, some institutions bearing the name "junior high school" have done no more toward reorganization than to introduce such a meager array of elements; but the administrators of the schools would be unlikely to boast in writing of the accomplishment.

However, even if it proved feasible to install all features of reorganization in 8-year elementary schools, it would still be urgent to dissociate junior youth from the younger elementary school children. One of the prevalent pathetic spectacles in 8-4 systems is the incongruity of the compulsory continuous association of overgrown youth with younger children long after the former have outgrown the facilities of the elementary school and its maternalistic regimen. This incongruity is analogous to the attire these youths must sometimes continue to wear long after it has been outgrown.

During the first quarter of the century and for some years beyond, junior high school reorganization was being encouraged as a movement somewhat resembling a crusade. The rapid growth was partly interrupted by the great depression and by a world war, both of which had their retarding influence on many other social movements, educational and noneducational. Review of more recent trends finds the movement still dynamic but at the same time deserving of some revival of the crusading spirit of the earlier period. Heightened encouragement could well be given, not only to committing additional systems to redistricting

and rehousing for desirable grade-grouping for reorganization, but also to effecting improvements in systems already reorganized through more extensive introduction and development of the features characteristic of the junior high school. This recommendation applies to many separate junior units enrolling pupils in lower adolescent years only, as may readily be seen by checking the elements of their programs against the abundant array of features described in Chapters IV–VIII.

The recommendation appears to apply even more to 6-year high schools on a 3–3 or an undivided basis, in which the pupils in grades 7–9 seem often to be treated like the proverbial step-children, with the focus of attention and the advantages of an adequate program reserved for students at the senior high school level. There is no good reason why pupils in the lower years of these 6-year schools should not have the benefit of features characteristic of the best junior high schools, such as a curriculum reflecting successful efforts at integration, with block-time arrangements; an extra-class program with a wide variety of activities and organizations, centralized through a functional student organization; an effective guidance program, including provision for vital home-room activities, whether in special periods or in the social-living core; and a program for differentiation that meets the individual needs of the diverse pupil population always found in junior high school grades no matter what the pattern of grade-grouping.

Selected and Annotated Bibliography

PURPOSE AND NATURE OF THE REFERENCES

This selected and annotated bibliography has been prepared to serve the needs of persons who wish to push their acquaintance with the literature bearing on junior high school reorganization beyond the treatment and report of trends in the foregoing chapters. It should prove useful to individuals interested in enlarging their understanding of the junior high school, to classes in higher institutions studying the problems of school reorganization, and to faculty groups in secondary schools undertaking to renew or enlarge their contacts with theory and practice in this field. The annotations accompanying the references are intended to provide clues to the nature of the content in the writings rather than to their recommendations or conclusions.

Not counting repeated references to certain comprehensive treatises because they carry content falling under several chapter headings, the total number of different items (articles, bulletins, and books) is well over a hundred (108). All are of relatively recent publication date. Sixty-five were published during the 5-year span, 1950 to 1954, inclusive; twenty-eight more in the preceding 5-year period. Thus, only fifteen antedate 1945, and only one of these appeared before 1940.

Of these references, seven-tenths or more deal directly with the junior high school or other junior high school reorganization or with the junior high school age. Most of the remainder are more general, in that they deal with the "secondary school" in the sense of a 6-year span of education or with matters like the core curriculum, cumulative records, testing, remedial reading, etc., but always with significance for the junior high school level. Four of the items only are concerned with the "high school" as an institution following the 8-year elementary school and these are included be-

cause they report studies having implications for the junior high school.

The recency of publication of this body of literature and its merit discredit the assertions sometimes made that there has been a shrinkage of writing on the junior high school in recent years, and that the dearth is proof of waning interest in reorganization. While the quality of the items listed below may vary, all are deserving of some attention; many, including treatises, descriptions of practice, reports of research, or more theoretical discussions, seem to this writer fully as significant as the materials published during any previous period in the history of the reorganization movement.

COMPREHENSIVE TREATISES

Most of the references are grouped under the chapter headings to which they apply. However, the four following publications are comprehensive treatises on the junior high school—comprehensive in the sense that they deal with the institution in many aspects, such as purposes, various features, administration, etc. On this account specific references are made to applicable chapters or other portions of them in the groups of references supplied for each of the chapters of this monograph. This is done by mention only of the authors and publications without further annotation.*

Gruhn, William T., and Douglass, Harl R., *The Modern Junior High School*, New York, The Ronald Press Company, 1947 (492 pp.).

Intended, as stated in the preface, "(1) to give an adequate statement of the history, philosophy, and functions of the junior high school; (2) to reveal prevailing nation-wide practices in its educational program; and (3) to suggest and describe improved programs and procedures not yet common in the typical school." A useful inclusive work.

Herriott, M. E. (chairman), *Organizing the Junior High School*, *Bulletin of the National Association of Secondary School Principals*, XXXV (December, 1951), pp. 3-157.

Prepared by the Committee on Junior High School Problems of the California Association of Secondary School Administrators.

* These references will carry an asterisk. See, for example, p. 148.

Was published in 1949 by the California State Department of Education as a *Handbook for California Junior High Schools*. It deserves the wider distribution given it by this republication.

The chapters are by different authors.

Noar, Gertrude, *The Junior High School Today and Tomorrow*, New York, Prentice-Hall, Inc., 1953 (372 pp.).

Has the most recent publication date of these four treatises and, as it emphasizes the core curriculum and instructional procedures in it, will be helpful in this area.

Smith, Maurice M., Standley, L. L., and Hughes, Cecil L., *Junior High School Education: Its Principles and Procedures*, New York, McGraw-Hill Book Company, 1942 (470 pp.).

The oldest of the comprehensive treatises listed, but still serviceable. The preface says that it was "conceived for the purpose (1) of bringing into relief the experimental evidence about pupils and the survey data of society that bear on the problem of junior high school education, and (2) of reviewing effective principles and procedures of junior high school education."

Chapter I

GROWTH AND STATUS OF REORGANIZATION

Beals, Lester, "The Junior High School—Past and Present," *Bulletin of the National Association of Secondary School Principals*, XXXVI (January, 1952), pp. 15–24.

A summary of trends as one educationist sees them, with a review of abiding functions and suggestions as to how these functions may be achieved.

Gaumnitz, Walter H., "Trends in Public High School Reorganization," *School Life*, XXXVI (February, 1954), pp. 77–78.

A statistical report on growth in junior high school reorganization since 1920, prepared by a specialist in the federal Office of Education and using the same source of evidence drawn upon in the first chapter of this monograph. Shows rapid gains on "regular" high schools of all main patterns of reorganized schools.

Gaumnitz, Walter H., and Hull, J. Dan, "Junior High Schools versus the Traditional (8–4) High School Organization," *Bulletin of the National Association of Secondary School Principals*, XXXVIII (March, 1954), pp. 112–121.

Following a digest of the "advantages" of the traditional and of the junior high school organizations, the authors present in tables and interpretation "the statistical trends and status of high school reorganization."

*Gruhn and Douglass, *The Modern Junior High School*. Chapter II, "The Beginning and Growth of the Junior High School," pp. 22-43.

Lauchner, S. H., "A Study of the Trends in Junior High School Practices in Twenty-four States," *Bulletin of the National Association of Secondary School Principals*, XXXV (December, 1951), pp. 120-125.

Trends as observed in personal visits in 1950-51 to seventy-one junior high schools. Observations relate to block-time arrangements, integration in the core, grouping, guidance, physical education and athletics, reports to parents, etc. The trends noted are more often from personal observation than from statistical derivation.

*Smith, Standley, and Hughes, *Junior High School Education*, Chapter I, "Introduction to Junior High School Education," pp. 1-33.

Chapter II

THE PURPOSES OF REORGANIZATION

Adolescence. Part I of the Forty-third Yearbook of the National Society for the Study of Education. Nelson B. Henry, Editor. Distributed by University of Chicago Press, Chicago, Ill., 1944 (358 pp.).

Brings together the latest information concerning youth in adolescence available up to the time of publication. Contains chapters by specialists in all aspects of adolescent growth and development. Invaluable for basic understanding of youth.

Caswell, Hollis L. (editor), *The American High School: Its Responsibility and Opportunity*, New York, Harper & Brothers, 1946, Chapter V.

Chapter V (pp. 70-99), by Stephen M. Corey, is on "The Developmental Tasks of Youth," and is a summary and discussion in brief of the educational significance of these developmental tasks. The author acknowledges indebtedness to Havighurst and Prescott for their concept of the developmental task.

Gruhn, William T., "The Purposes of the Junior High School—After Forty Years," *California Journal of Secondary Education*, XXXVII (March, 1952), pp. 127-132.

The same formulation of purposes as presented in Chapter III of Gruhn and Douglass's *The Modern Junior High School*.

*Gruhn and Douglass, *The Modern Junior High School*, Chapter III, "The Functions of the Junior High School," pp. 44-61.

Havighurst, Robert J., *Human Development and Education*, New York, Longmans, Green and Co., Inc., 1953 (338 pp.).

Exposition of the concept of the "developmental task." Contains chapters on the developmental tasks of adolescence and includes consideration of the adolescent peer group.

Howell, Clarence E., "Junior High: How Valid Are Its Original Aims?" *Clearing House*, XXIII (October, 1948), pp. 75-78.

Reports the results of a questionnaire appraisal by more than a hundred junior high school administrators of forty-five "original aims" of the junior high school.

Jones, Harold E., *Development in Adolescence*, New York, D. Appleton-Century Co., 1943 (166 pp.).

Learning about characteristics of young adolescents through case study.

Lieberman, Elias, "The Function of Today's Junior High Schools," *Bulletin of the National Association of Secondary School Principals*, XXXV (April, 1951), pp. 151-158.

Not so much a direct treatment of purposes of the junior high school as an exposition of certain developments in junior high schools of New York City; namely, a project in character training, work in shops and creative expression, and curriculum changes toward integrated learning.

Low, Camilla M., "Tasting Their Teens in the Junior High School," *NEA Journal*, XLII (September, 1953), pp. 347-349.

A succinct and popularly-written statement concerning the nature and characteristics of early adolescents of both sexes and a brief description of the understanding teacher for this school level.

*Noar, Gertrude, *The Junior High School Today and Tomorrow*. Chapter I, "The Functions of the Junior High School," pp. 3-28; and Chapter II "Meeting the Needs of Youth," pp. 29-51.

Segel, David, *Frustration in Adolescent Youth: Its Development*

and Implications for the School Program. United States Office of Education Bulletin 1951, No. 1. Washington, D.C., Government Printing Office, (66 pp.).

A synthesis of psychological theory explaining frustration in the adolescent and the implications of the theory for the educational program and for guidance.

Segel, David, *Intellectual Abilities in the Adolescent Period*, United States Office of Education Bulletin 1948, No. 6, Washington, D.C., Government Printing Office. 41 pp.

A digest of research to disclose the relationship of mental ability to traits and interests. Educational implications include those for young teen-agers.

*Smith, Standley, and Hughes, *Junior High School Education*, Chapter II, "Physical Growth and Development," pp. 37-73; Chapter III, "Mental Growth," pp. 74-100; and Chapter IV, "The Adolescent in Society," pp. 101-128.

Chapter III

GRADE-GROUPING FOR REORGANIZATION

Barnes, Jarvis, "The Future of the Junior High School," *School Executive*, LXIV (February, 1945), pp. 43-45.

After quoting extensively from Jones's article (see reference below), reports concerning patterns of organization and plans for change in 92 cities with populations of 100,000 and over. Bonar, Carl F., and P. W. Hutson, "Recognition of the Variation of Maturity of Pupils in Six-Year High Schools," *Bulletin of the National Association of Secondary School Principals*, XXXVIII (October, 1954), pp. 108-116.

A tabular analysis of instructional and other provisions in the different grades of 6-year schools disclosing frequent neglect of the needs of pupils in grades 7-9 in these schools.

Cole, Thomas R., "What Grades Should Constitute the Junior High School?" *American School Board Journal*, CXII (February, 1946), p. 42.

Presents arguments for certain grade-groupings with special consideration for systems in the state of Washington.

Farris, L. P., "Compensating Values of a Five-Year School," *Califor-*

nia Journal of Secondary Education, XVI (December, 1941), pp. 470-472.

Points out on the basis of experience some advantages of the 5-year secondary school.

*Gruhn and Douglass, *The Modern Junior High School*, Chapter XV, "Grade Organization," pp. 402-407.

Jones, Arthur J., "The Junior High School: Past, Present, and Future," *Bulletin of the National Association of Secondary School Principals*, XXVIII (March, 1944), pp. 3-14.

A review and speculative appraisal of the junior high school movement with the author's reasons for expecting decline of the junior high school as a separate unit.

Koos, Leonard V., "The Superiority of the Four-Year Junior High School," *School Review*, LI (September, 1943), pp. 397-407.

An investigative comparison of 3-year and 4-year junior high schools.

Martorana, Sebastian V., "Superintendents View Plans of Grade Organization," *School Review*, LVIII (May, 1950), pp. 269-276.

A report of preferences for different patterns of grade-grouping for their school systems by city superintendents throughout the country.

Shipp, Frederic T., "4-4-4-3: New Plan for School Organization," *School Executive*, LXXI (September, 1951), p. 62.

Presents brief arguments for a 4-4-4-3 organization of the school system.

Young, Irvin F., "What Are the Most Significant Functions of the Six-Year School?" *Bulletin of the National Association of Secondary School Principals*, XXXVI (March, 1952), pp. 304-311.

Presents the advantages of economy of operation, administration, and educational opportunities of the 6-year school as compared with separate junior and senior units in systems with small enrollments.

Chapter IV

ORGANIZATION OF THE CURRICULUM

Adams, Lela, "Family Living in the Junior High School," *California Journal of Secondary Education*, XXVI (April, 1951), pp. 220-221.

Brief description of units on family life in the field of home-making as developed in Moline, Illinois. Emphasis is on experience and activities "rather than on content or pure subject matter."

Alberty, Harold, *Reorganizing the High School Curriculum*, rev. ed., New York, The Macmillan Company, 1953 (566 pp.).

Influential treatise on curriculum throughout the 6-year secondary school period, and especially helpful in working out the core program.

Arisman, Kenneth, Remmer, Clara, Schmidt, Mildred, and Willis, Margaret, "Promoting Democracy in Junior High School Years," *Bulletin of the National Association of Secondary School Principals*, XXIX (April, 1945), pp. 29-39.

Description of the program in the junior high school years of the University High School at Ohio State University.

Burnett, Lewie W., "Core Programs in Washington State Junior High Schools," *School Review*, LIX (February, 1951), pp. 97-100.

A study of the status of the core program and block-time arrangements in junior high schools, together with opinions of the principals.

Capehart, Bertis E., Hodges, Allen, and Berdan, Norman, "An Objective Evaluation of a Core Program," *School Review*, LX (February, 1952), pp. 84-89.

An experimental inquiry, using matched pairs of students, of a core program in the Oak Ridge (Tennessee) High School.

Capehart, Bertis E., Hodges, Allen, and Roth, Robert, "Evaluating the Core Curriculum: A Further Look," *School Review*, LXI (October, 1953), pp. 406-412.

Continuation of the report of the investigation represented in the foregoing item.

Cramer, Roscoe V., "Common-Learnings Program in the Junior High School," *Bulletin of the National Association of Secondary School Principals*, XXXV (April, 1951), pp. 158-166.

Exposition of introduction and development of the program in West Junior High School, Kansas City, Missouri. Record of steps in early stages of working it out; presentation of schedules, including subjects; and "favorable educational results" after five years.

Davis, M. Evelyn, "The Administration of Audio-Visual Services in the Junior High School," *Bulletin of the National Association of Secondary School Principals*, XXIX (April, 1945), pp. 121-127.

Informative article on organization and procedures in schools without specialists.

Deaton, J. C., Sr., "A Core-Organized School in Action," *California Journal of Secondary Education*, XXVII (March, 1952), pp. 133-138.

Brief explanation and personal appraisal, by the principal in charge, of the core program in the Yosemite Junior High School, Fresno, California.

Faunce, Roland C., and Bossing, Nelson L., *Developing the Core Curriculum*, New York, Prentice-Hall, Inc., 1951 (311 pp.).

A helpful treatment of the core program, including consideration of its philosophy, the learning process involved, illustrative core classes in action, planning instruction in core classes, the role of the teacher, steps in developing the program, and procedures in evaluation.

Giles, H. H., *Teacher-Pupil Planning*, New York, Harper & Brothers, 1941 (396 pp.).

Considers the theory of teacher-pupil planning and contends that "democratic purposes require democratic methods." Also presents "supplementary illustrations" from practice.

* Gruhn and Douglass, *The Modern High School*. Chapter V, "The Curriculum: Trends and Organization," pp. 89-113, Chapter VI, "The Curriculum: Traditional Fields," pp. 114-154, Chapter VII, "The Curriculum: Newer Subjects," pp. 155-191, Chapter VIII, "Philosophy and Practice of Instructional Procedure," pp. 192-220.

Guides to Curriculum Building: The Junior High School Level, Springfield, Ill., Superintendent of Public Instruction, 1950 (182 pp.).

Prepared by the Wisconsin Coöperative Planning Program and reprinted with permission. One of the most useful documents available for those at work on the junior high school curriculum, as it charts systematically the characteristics of young adolescents and lists the "tasks the pupil faces" and "what the school can do" to serve the youth.

*Herriott, M. E., (chairman), *Organizing the Junior High School*,

Chapter II, "Instructional Programs," pp. 20-34, by Fred W. Axe and Robert H. Lewis.

Krug, Edward A., *Curriculum Planning*, New York, Harper & Brothers, 1950 (306 pp.).

Systematic consideration of curriculum development, dealing with purposes, curriculum guides, development of teaching-learning aids, organizing the curriculum program in the local school system, and research in curriculum development. Generic as to school level and not pointed specifically to the junior high school level.

Lauchner, A. H., "How Can the Junior High School Curriculum Be Improved," *Bulletin of the National Association of Secondary School Principals*, XXXV (March, 1951), pp. 296-304.

Discussion of the problem of improving the junior high school curriculum, with illustrations drawn from visits to schools in many cities over the country.

Leeds, W. L., "Core Classes in Action," *Education*, LXXIII (January 1953), pp. 273-296.

A report on core classes in grades 8 and 9 in a "midwestern junior high school" with detailed description and illustrative quotations from tape-recordings. This issue of *Education* is given over to a number of descriptive articles on the core curriculum; the remaining articles in the issue being by teachers, administrators, and others in the Miami (Florida) junior high schools in which a curriculum called "Basic Education" (the term applied to the core in this school system) was being developed.

Leonard, J. Paul, *Developing the Secondary School Curriculum*, rev. ed., New York: Rinehart & Co., Inc., 1953 (582 pp.).

As title implies, deals with curriculum through the 6-year secondary school span, but theory is applicable to junior high school level and many illustrations are from this level. Especially valuable on core curriculum are Chapters XIV-XVIII, called, respectively, "Developing Core Courses," "Organizing and Using Units of Work," "Developing Resource Units," and "Developing Classroom Units."

Mudd, Dorothy, *A Core Program Grows*, Bel Air, Md., Harford County Board of Education, 1949 (138 pp.).

A report, by the junior high school supervisor, of experience

with the core program after three years with it. Particularly helpful to those in the early stages of developing a core program.

*Noar, Gertrude, *The Junior High School Today and Tomorrow*, Part III, "Modern Curriculum Content and Techniques," pp. 151-281, and Part IV, "Resource Material for the Teacher," pp. 309-368. Oliver, Essie, "Curriculum Experiment in Junior High School," *Nations Schools*, XLIX (March, 1952), pp. 46-48.

Brief description of program in the Apopka (Florida) Memorial High School, a junior-senior school. One teacher for most subjects in grades 7-8. Advantages reviewed. Few details reported.

Rice, Theodore D., and Faunce, Roland C., "Education for All Junior High School Youth," *Bulletin of the National Association of Secondary School Principals*, XXIX (April, 1945), pp. 40-45.

An application of the recommendations of *Education for ALL American Youth* to the junior high school level.

*Smith, Standley, and Hughes, *Junior High School Education*, Chapter VII, "The Program of Studies," pp. 201-226; and Chapter VIII, "Teacher Planning," pp. 227-245.

Swan, Bryan F., and Dunn, Generose, "A Unit in Atomic Energy for Junior High School," *School Review*, LXII (April, 1954), pp. 231-236.

Report of an experience with a unit in a new field in grades 7 and 8 of the University of Chicago Laboratory School, including statements concerning teaching principles, developmental reading, demonstration exhibit, field trip, and reading and vocabulary exercises, plus an annotated list of readings for pupils and teachers.

Tyler, Ralph W., "The Core Curriculum," *NEA Journal*, XLII (December, 1953), pp. 563-565.

Excellent succinct statement concerning the core curriculum, including a list of distinguishing characteristics, the influences which stimulated its invention, extent of its use, objective appraisals made, and the problems of putting it into effective operation.

Vars, G. F., "Problems of a Beginning Core Teacher," *Educational Leadership*, IX (October, 1951), pp. 12-16.

Some of the problems faced by a teacher of core in Grade 9 in the Junior-Senior High School, Bel Air, Maryland.

Wattenbarger, James L., "Competencies Needed by Core Teachers," *Educational Research Bulletin*, XXXII (October 14, 1953), pp. 181-185.

Ratings by core teachers in Florida of forty-eight "competencies" found in an analysis of published descriptions of the work of core teachers.

Wright, Grace S., *Core Curriculum Development: Problems and Practices*, United States Office of Education Bulletin 1952, No. 5, Washington, D.C., Government Printing Office, (104 pp.).

Report of an investigation of status and practices in core programs in public secondary schools, including analysis of problems reported by principals. Excellent compact reference for persons looking for an overview of practices and problems.

Wright, Grace S., *Core Curriculum in Public High Schools*, United States Office of Education Bulletin 1950 No. 5, Washington, D.C. Government Printing Office, (32 pp.).

Called also "An Inquiry into Practices," it reports a study of status made shortly before the one reported in the foregoing reference by the same author.

Chapter V

RETREAT FROM DEPARTMENTALIZATION

Arrangements in scheduling represented in the block-time provisions made in the retreat from departmentalization are described in some of the references cited for the preceding chapter on curriculum organization; for example, the article by Burnett and the last item in the list by Wright. Here are listed only two brief articles setting forth advantages of the double-period arrangement and a research bulletin reporting practices in Wisconsin.

Keck, M. B., "We Get to Know Joe in Double-Period Program, Folwell Junior High School, Minneapolis," *NEA Journal*, XLI (December, 1952), pp. 562-563.

Krug, Edward A., Liddle, Clifford S., and Schenk, Quentin, *Multiple-Period Curricular Organization in Wisconsin Secondary Schools*, Bulletin of the School of Education, University of Wisconsin, 1952 (52 pp.).

The report of an investigation of block-scheduling (here called

"multiple-period programs") on a state-wide basis. Includes evidence on the years the programs were introduced, the grade-location of the programs, courses included, purposes, teaching procedures used, etc.

Simney, Lucille, "A Teacher Looks at the Double-Period Program," *California Journal of Secondary Education*, XXVII (March, 1953), pp. 146-147.

Chapter VI

THE PROGRAM OF EXTRA-CLASS ACTIVITIES

Baxter, Beatrice, "Student Body Organizations and Functioning," *Bulletin of the National Association of Secondary School Principals*, XXXV (April, 1951), pp. 117-119.

The principal of a junior high school in Los Angeles presents certain principles for operating the student body organization. Brinn, Morris A., "The Function of a Radio Club in the Junior High School," *School Science and Mathematics*, XLVII (February, 1947), pp. 185-188.

Brief exposition of the "agenda" of the club's meetings, describing a rather wide variety of programs and activities.

Brown, Ida Stewart, "Group Development in a Junior High School Student Council," *Educational Leadership*, IX (May, 1952), pp. 496-501.

Explanation and report of a research project of a graduate class in educational psychology on student councils in junior high school. Gives "impressions" which are in the nature of conclusions. Crowley, Elmer S., [Status of Dramatic Arts] "In the Junior High School," *Bulletin of the National Association of Secondary School Principals*, XXXIII (December, 1949), pp. 33-40.

Summary of a partial survey of dramatics in junior high schools and suggested units for a course in dramatics for Grade 9.

Dukelow, D. A., and Hein, Fred V., "Junior High Athletic Leagues," *Today's Health*, XXIX (November, 1951), p. 13.

These writers join in an editorial on the controversy over "grade school and junior high school participation in highly organized interschool athletic leagues."

Durflinger, Glenn W., "Questionnaire Determines Clubs for the Year," *Clearing House*, XXIII (October, 1948), pp. 84-87.

Describes the procedure used in a high school to determine the

clubs to be organized. Suitable for application at the junior high school level.

* Gruhn and Douglass, *The Modern Junior High School*, Chapter XIII, "Extra-class Activities," pp. 346-377.

* Herriott, M. E. (chairman), *Organizing the Junior High School*, Chapter III, "Student Body Organization," pp. 35-44, by Evelyn L. Dayman.

Hogan, Thomas F., "A Semantics Club in a Junior High School." *School Review*, LXI (November, 1953), pp. 488-490.

Organization and activities described by a teacher-leader who utilized an interest in words emerging in a science class.

Johnston, Edgar G., and Faunce, Roland C., *Student Activities in Secondary Schools: Enrichment of the Educational Program*, New York, The Ronald Press Company, 1952 (370 pp.).

An inclusive treatise. Although not pitched specifically at the junior high school level, much of the treatment will apply there.

Ludden, Wallace, "How Extensive an Activities Program in the Junior High School?" *Bulletin of the National Association of Secondary School Principals*, XXXVI (March, 1952), pp. 257-262.

A principal, following a preliminary statement, describes the activity program in the junior high school at Rome, New York.

McKee, Mabel F., "An Experiment in Guidance," *School Review*, LIV (January, 1946), pp. 39-42.

Describes a campaign for manners and courtesy in the Amos Hiatt Junior High School in Des Moines, Iowa.

McKown, Harry C., *Extracurricular Activities*, rev. ed., New York, The Macmillan Co., 1952 (666 pp.).

Comprehensive treatise, not directed specifically to the junior high school, but contains a great deal that is applicable there. Helpful material on home-room, student council, assembly, clubs, publications, etc.

Miles, L. C., "Adolescent Explorer Finds What He Needs," *NEA Journal*, XLII (December, 1953), pp. 557-558.

Describes provisions for exploratory activities in the junior high school in Cedar City, Utah.

Miner, Melissa, "Parade of Extracurricular Activities Assembly," *School Activities*, XVIII (May, 1947), pp. 297-298.

Use of extra-class activities in the school's assembly programs.

Mitchell, E. D., "The Case Against Interscholastic Athletics in the Junior High School," *Education Digest*, XVII (March, 1952), pp. 46-48.

Brief statement of the arguments against interscholastic athletics at the junior high school level by a professor of physical education in the University of Michigan.

Rowe, Floyd A., "Should the Junior High School Have Organized Competitive Athletics?" *School Activities*, XXII (November and December, 1950), pp. 96-99, 129-130, 142-143.

Answer based on measures of growth over a 2-year span of boys in competitive athletics compared with boys taking gymnasium and not taking gymnasium.

Rupp, Russell H., "The Pupil Activity Program," *Bulletin of the National Association of Secondary School Principals*, XXIX (April, 1945), pp. 63-72.

Mainly a description of a rather extensive pupil-activities program in the Shaker Heights (Ohio) Junior High School.

School Athletics: Problems and Policies, Washington, D.C., National Education Association, 1954 (116 pp.).

A report of the Educational Policies Commission on athletics in elementary and secondary schools. Opposed to interscholastic leagues and contests for junior high schools.

* Smith, Standley, and Hughes, *Junior High School Education*, Chapter, IX, "Enriching Instruction Through Extraclass Activities," pp. 245-268.

Tompkins, Ellsworth, *The Activity Period in Public High Schools*, United States Office of Education Bulletin 1951, No. 19, Washington, D.C., Government Printing Office (18 pp.).

Report and interpretation of responses from 10,925 public secondary schools to a question in an "inventory of offerings" concerning time in an "activity period during the school day." Junior high schools were represented in the study.

Chapter VII

THE PROGRAM OF GUIDANCE

Beals, Lester M., "The Guidance Program in Colin Kelly Junior High School," *Bulletin of the National Association of Secondary School Principals*, XXXIV (January, 1950), pp. 248-257.

Inclusive description, by the principal, of the guidance program in a junior high school with an enrollment of five hundred in Eugene, Oregon.

Cronbach, Lee J., *Essentials of Psychological Testing*, New York, Harper & Brothers, 1949 (476 pp.).

Comprehensive treatise on testing usable as a manual of reference by persons responsible for tests and testing.

Detjen, Mary E., and Detjen, Ervin W., *Home-Room Guidance Program for Junior High School Years*, Boston, Houghton Mifflin Co., 1940 (510 pp.).

Carefully prepared outlines of home-room activities throughout the year for three years.

Dugan, Willis E., *Counseling and Guidance in the Secondary School*, *Bulletin of the National Association of Secondary School Principals*, XXXV (January, 1951), pp. 9-78.

A report on the counseling phase of guidance prepared for the National Association of Secondary School Principals under the editorial direction of the Association's Committee on Testing and Guidance. No special consideration of the junior high school, but applicable there.

Dunsmoor, Clarence C., and Miller, Leonard M., *Guidance Methods for Teachers in Home-Room, Classroom, Core Program*, Scranton, Pa., International Textbook Co., 1942 (382 pp.).

Aims to be helpful mainly to teachers in discharging the guidance function. Generic as to school level but chiefly applicable in secondary schools.

Estrin, Herman A., "Making a Home-Room More Effective," *School Activities*, XXI (May, 1950), pp. 281-287.

The report of the experience of a sponsor with considerable initiative in maintaining a home-room with a seventh-grade group.

Froelich, Clifford P., and Benson, Arthur L., *Guidance Testing*, Chicago, Science Research Associates, 1948 (104 pp.).

A compact report on tests and testing prepared by the Occupational Information and Guidance Service of the United States Office of Education, with the advice of a committee of consulting specialists. Tests appropriate for the junior high school level are readily identifiable in the descriptions.

Fuller, Kenneth A., and Hughes, Eleanor R., "Students Study the Schools," *NEA Journal*, XLI (April, 1952), pp. 236-237.

Description of an orientation unit on a local junior high school that expands into a study of the local school system, the state school system, and the growth of schools.

Gateways to Guidance: Some Aspects of Mental Hygiene for Classroom Teachers, Brooklyn, N.Y., Board of Education of the City of New York, 1950 (58 pp.).

A compilation of practices in the junior high schools of New York City, mainly of instances of classroom teachers dealing with individual pupils. Not an exposition of a guidance program.

Gingrich, Robert W., "Junior High Occupations," *Clearing House*, XXVII (April, 1953), pp. 460-462.

The dean of boys describes a plan, in the Mamaroneck (New York) Junior High School, of giving information about occupations.

* Gruhn and Douglass, *The Modern Junior High School*, Chapter XI, "The Guidance Program," pp. 281-312; and Chapter XII, "The Home-Room," pp. 313-345.

Handbook of Cumulative Records: A Report of the National Committee on Cumulative Records, United States Office of Education Bulletin 1944, No. 5, Washington, D.C., Government Printing Office, (104 pp.).

A comprehensive summary of the types of items found on cumulative records. Basic principles are analyzed and specific uses recommended for elementary and high schools.

* Herriott, M. E. (chairman), *Organizing the Junior High School*, Chapter V, "Guidance Principles and Practices," pp. 59-70, by Harold B. Brooks and Leon L. Kaplan.

Krugman, Judith I., and Wrightstone, J. Wayne, *A Guide to the Use of Anecdotal Records*, Educational Research Bulletin of the Bureau of Reference, Research and Statistics, No. 11, New York, Board of Education, 1949 (34 pp.).

Values, principles, and methods of making and recording observations for anecdotal records.

McFarland, John W., "Developing Effective Home-Rooms," *School Review*, LXI (October, 1953), pp. 400-405.

Presents five major reasons for the effectiveness of home-rooms

and suggests remedial procedures for each deterrent to effectiveness.

McKown, Harry C., *Home-Room Guidance*, sec. ed., New York, The Macmillan Company, 1946 (522 pp.).

Description of guidance activities and other types of programs for the home-room. Much of the material appropriate for junior high schools.

Miller, L. Paul, "What Kind of Guidance and Counseling Programs in the Junior High School," *Bulletin of the National Association of Secondary School Principals*, XXV (March, 1951), pp. 157-162.

Describes a planned program for aiding pupils (1) to adjust to the present and (2) to plan for the future.

"Orientation of Pupils for the Secondary School," *The National Elementary Principal*, XXXI (February, 1952), pp. 3-43.

This entire issue is devoted to considering the preparation of elementary school pupils for entering junior and senior high schools.

Numerous articles describe pre-admission practices in orientation.

* Smith, Standley, and Hughes, *Junior High School Education*, Chapter V, "Adjustment Through the Guidance Program," pp. 131-177.

Symonds, Percival M., "Validation of a Personality Survey of a Junior High School," *School Review*, LVI (October, 1948), pp. 459-467.

Validation by case studies of the procedures used in the personality survey reported in the next reference.

Symonds, Percival M., and Sherman, Murray, "A Personality Survey of a Junior High School," *School Review*, LV (October, 1947), pp. 449-461.

Report of an elaborate procedure applied in the Benjamin Franklin High School in Manhattan, New York City. The survey obtained data on eight "factors" for each pupil. The procedure may seem too extensive for many schools but is suggestive for identification in schools of large enrollments of problem pupils or those of unusual promise.

Thomasson, A. L., "How May Guidance Be Effective in the Junior High School?" *Bulletin of the National Association of Secondary School Principals*, XXXVI (March, 1952), pp. 235-242.

The principal explains the steps taken to develop the guidance program in the Champaign (Illinois) Junior High School.

Traxler, Arthur E., "Emerging Trends in Guidance," *School Review*, LVIII (January, 1950), pp. 14-23.

Reports trends in schools generally, and not merely at the junior high school level.

Traxler, Arthur E., "The Cumulative Record in the Guidance Program," *School Review*, LIV (March, 1946), pp. 154-161.

Important relationship emphasized and characteristics of a desirable cumulative record described and illustrated.

Chapter VIII

THE PROGRAM FOR DIFFERENTIATION

Brink, William G., and Witty, Paul A., "Current Practices in Remedial Reading in Secondary Schools," *School Review*, LVII (May-June, 1949), pp. 260-266.

Report of a study of practices in remedial reading as carried on in more than a hundred high schools. Although the schools represented are 4-year and senior high schools, the practices are in large part applicable at the junior high school level.

Drake, Leland N., "Administrative Techniques Used for Pupil Adjustment in a Junior High School," *American School Board Journal*, CVI (May, 1943), pp. 21-22.

Provisions for individual differences in a junior high school in Columbus (Ohio) as reported by the principal.

French, Will, "Some Basic Policies for the Junior High School," *Bulletin of the National Association of Secondary School Principals*, XXIX (April, 1945), pp. 5-9, 16.

Policies relating to flexibility of admission to and promotion within and from the junior high school with regard for social maturity rather than on a rigid subject-achievement basis.

* Gruhn and Douglass, *The Modern Junior High School*. Chapter IX, "Individualizing the School Program," pp. 221-248.

Howland, Stanley Ford, "Administrative Provisions for Adapting the Junior High School Program to Pupils," *Bulletin of the National Association of Secondary School Principals*, XXIX (April, 1945), pp. 89-92.

A plan including "slow-learning," "modified," and "fast-learning" classes.

Hunt, Helen H., and Smith, Leslie G., "A Junior High School Tries

Social Grouping," *California Journal of Secondary Education*, XVI (December, 1941), pp. 480-481.

The Claremont Junior High School in Oakland (California) abandoned ability grouping for a plan of "social grouping."

Justman, Joseph, "Academic Achievement of Intellectually Gifted Accelerants and Non-accelerants in Junior High School," *School Review*, LXII (March, 1954), pp. 142-150.

Comparison of academic achievement as measured by tests in mathematics, science, social studies, and work-study skills and in ratings of creative expression in the language arts of matched pairs of students in special-progress and normal progress classes in junior high schools of New York City.

Justman, Joseph, "Personal and Social Adjustment of Intellectually Gifted Accelerants and Non-accelerants in Junior High School," *School Review*, LXI (November, 1953), pp. 468-478.

Comparison on measures of personal and social adjustment of the same groups of students as were represented in the foregoing item by the same author.

Mones, Leon, "The Binet Pupil Gets a Chance," *School and Society*, LXVII (April 10, 1948), pp. 281-283.

A plan for special progress for pupils of low mentality in a junior high school.

* Noar, Gertrude, *The Junior High School Today and Tomorrow*, Chapter XIV, "Meeting the Needs of the Slow and the Gifted Pupils," pp. 282-306.

* Smith, Standley, and Hughes, *Junior High School Education*. Chapter VI, "The Adjustment of Exceptional Children," pp. 178-198.

Traxler, Arthur E., "Remedial Reading Today," *School Review*, LXI (January, 1953), pp. 17-24.

A summary of current theory and practice in remedial reading in schools, with a statement concerning controversial questions and current needs in the field.

Chapter IX

PROSPECTS OF FURTHER REORGANIZATION

Andreen, Earl P. (editorial co-ordinator), "Symposium: The Challenge Facing the Junior High School," *California Journal of Secondary Education*, XXIX (May, 1954), pp. 263-301.

A group of statements, mainly by principals and other staff members, descriptive of policies and practices in California junior high schools. They deal with such matters as the importance of the junior high school, characteristics of the adolescent, teachers, sixth-grade orientation, the home-room, etc. Will serve the reader as an indication of the continuing dynamics of the junior high school. Briggs, Thomas H., "Has the Junior High School Made Good?" *Educational Administration and Supervision*, XXIV (January, 1938), pp. 1-10.

A tally of opinions of 138 junior high school teachers who had previously had elementary school experience as to whether or not there has been improvement through junior high school reorganization over the 8-4 organization.

Douglass, Aubrey A., "Persistent Problems of the Junior High," *California Journal of Secondary Education*, XX (February, 1945), pp. 110-120.

A review and discussion appraisal of the junior high school situation with special consideration of developments in California.

* Gruhn and Douglass, *The Modern Junior High School*, Chapter XVIII, "The Junior High School of Tomorrow," pp. 455-460.

Hannah, Stanford, "Managing Without a Junior High School," *California Journal of Secondary Education*, XVI (December, 1941), pp. 473-475.

Tells how the Taft (California) school system endeavors to compensate for the absence of a junior high school.

* Smith, Standley, and Hughes, *Junior High School Education*, Chapter XVII, "Looking to the Future," pp. 449-456.

Tuttle, Harold S., "Has the Junior High School Kept Its Promise?" *Clearing House*, XIV (January, 1940), pp. 263-266.

A discussion review of the aims, accomplishments, and unsolved problems of the junior high school.

Wilson, Russell E., and Bennett, Herschel K., "Junior High School Built to Meet Community Specifications," *Nation's Schools*, LI (February, 1953), pp. 66-73.

The story of planning and establishing a junior high school following a study of the community (in Dearborn, Michigan) to be served. Includes illustrations of plant and facilities.

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